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ABSTRACT

The seven papers collected in this report cover the educational and labor market experiences of migrant youth in Australia. Most of the papers address the question of how these youths are affected by government labor programs and services. "Migrant Unemployment in the First Year of Labour Market Activity" (Paul W. Miller) reports that migrants, and refugees in particular, face high unemployment. "Explaining Unemployment Experience: Social, Structural and Birthplace Variations in Australia" (Ian McAllister) assesses unemployment difference between different birthplace migrant groups. "Careers Education: Cinderella of Schooling" (Diana F. Davis) evaluates the availability and adequacy of careers education and counseling services for migrant youth. "Ethnic Groups and Post-Compulsory Education" (Gerald Burke and Denis Davis) reviews the participation of ethnic groups in higher education and programs within the "Technical and Further Education" sector. "The Community Employment Program: A Slim Share for Migrants" (Tony Pensabene, Grazyna Mackiewicz, and Runda Beirouti) examines migrant participation in a program which provides employment opportunities through labor-intensive projects. "A Study of Migrant Participation in the Special Youth Employment Training Program" (Peter Shergold, Tony Pensabene, and Antoon Boey) evaluates migrant participation in a wage subsidy scheme which encourages employers to take on and train unemployed youth. "Migrants in the Community Youth Support Scheme" (Marie Kabala) reviews a program which provides grants to community-based, publicly elected committees to offer unemployed youth activities to increase their employability and provide them with support during unemployment. (KH)

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MIGRANTS, LABOUR MARKETS and TRAINING PROGRAMS

Some comments with Labour force

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MIGRANTS, LABOUR MARKETS AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Studies on the Migrant Youth Labour Force

Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs

1986

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Late in 1982 the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs was requested by the then Commonwealth Minister for Immigration and Ethnic Affairs to conduct a review of labour market programs and services affecting migrant and refugee youth. The terms of reference for this review were:

> Review the range of Commonwealth employment and training programs and CES services, to assess their availability and suitability to young migrant and refugee job-seekers
>
> . particular emphasis to be placed on difficulties faced by recent arrivals, and those with a non-English-speaking background.
>
> Ascertain any special employment and training needs of migrant/refugee youth, and review existing programs and services against these needs to
>
> . investigate the extent to which migrant/refugee youth utilize existing programs and identify any factors operating to limit such usage
>
> . identify needs which are not being met
>
> . examine how these needs may be met by the provision of improved programs and/or services and advise on the content of these services and programs.

In carrying out its review the Institute was asked to take into account the findings of previous reviews and evaluations of employment and training services whether general or specifically for migrants, and to consult with the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations and the Commonwealth Employment Service.

The report of this review was tabled in the Commonwealth Parliament in March 1985, and published soon after under the title Reducing the risk: unemployed migrant youth and labour market programs. The report included 34 recommendations arising from the review's findings.

The organisation of research for a review of such wide-ranging nature was considerable, involving many members of the Institute staff and a number of consultants - both individuals and organisations. It also included the conducting of two general surveys of a sample of people aged from 15 to 30 and selected, with the assistance of the Australian Bureau of Statistics, to include migrants from a number of communities. The 1983 General Survey collected responses on the educational and labour market experiences of 5,630 young people; the 1984 General Survey was a follow-up of 2,521 respondents to the 1983 survey. Information from these surveys was analysed for use by consultants and staff in the preparation of the papers that were the basis for the report.

The seven papers* that comprise this volume were produced during the review and drawn upon in the preparation of the report. However, the Institute considers that they contain material of sufficient general interest to merit their publication in full. Although they may be considered as supporting papers to the report, each takes as its subject a specific topic relevant to youth unemployment, particularly among migrant and refugee youth.

The first two papers examine the experience of unemployment among migrant youth; papers three and four look at aspects of education in their relation to employment and unemployment; and the final three papers examine three major Commonwealth programs - two providing employment and training and one offering support to unemployed youth - from the perspective of their availability and suitability to migrant youth.

In publishing the papers the Institute hopes they will prove of considerable interest, not only to researchers and policy makers working in the areas they cover, but also to members of the general community interested in the problems of young people in their search for employment during difficult times.

* A further paper, 'Unemployment patterns in the youth labour market' by Paul W Miller was originally intended for inclusion but was excluded because of its publication in the December 1985 issue of Australian Economic Papers.

MIGRANT UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE FIRST YEAR OF AUSTRALIAN LABOUR MARKET ACTIVITY*

Paul Miller

Introduction

The high unemployment rates experienced by migrants during their first year in Australia is an issue which has attracted considerable public discussion in recent years. Harrison (1984, Table 4) showed that the labour market has deteriorated since around 1974, but the difficulties faced by migrants, and particularly recent arrivals, are far more acute than those faced by the Australian-born. Over the period 1974 to 1982, the unemployment rate of Australian-born females increased from 2.5% to 7.8%, but that of overseas-born females with less than 17 months' residence in Australia increased from 4.5% to 30.3%. The ratio of the unemployment rate of recent settlers to that of the Australian-born provides a measure of the relative labour market success of the two groups. Between 1974 and 1982 this ratio rose from 1.8 to 3.9, suggesting a marked decline in the relative labour market performance of female recent arrivals. There has also been a decline in the comparative labour market success of male recent settlers, but it is more modest: the ratio of the unemployment rate of male recent settlers to that of the Australian-born increased from 2.7 to 3.3 between 1974 and 1982.

Harrison also established that unemployment represents a particularly pressing problem among recent migrants from non-English-speaking countries, and among women. Moreover, the process of adjustment for these groups was considerably slower than for male migrants from English-speaking countries. For the latter group, the unemployment problem tended to disappear reasonably rapidly after the first year of Australian labour market activity. But among other groups, high levels of unemployment tended to persist for a number of years after arrival in Australia.

The problem represented by increasing levels of unemployment among recent arrivals raises a number of interesting policy issues. First, does the problem derive from the recessionary labour market conditions which have prevailed in Australia since the mid-seventies? Or is it associated with the changing mix of the migrant intake, particularly the much publicised growth in the number of refugees, and the equally publicised switch in the country-of-origin composition of migrants?[1] Second, and as noted by both Harrison (1984) and Chapman and Miller (1984), it is useful to know the extent of turnover among recent migrants. At the extreme, a 20% unemployment rate can imply either that each member of the group is unemployed for 20% of the time, or that there is 20% of the group who comprise a 'hard-core' of unemployment. Presumably, the policy recommendations would hinge upon the exact characterisation of the unemployment pool. Third, and importantly, can government instrumentalities significantly influence the unemployment experiences of migrants? For example, the unemployment problem of recent arrivals is often attributed to deficiencies in their knowledge of the Australian labour market. Government action to provide information on job opportunities in Australia might be extended if a direct causal link could be established.

* The research for this paper was financed in part by the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs. The views expressed are those of the author and should not be attributed to the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs or the Australian Government. I am indebted to an anonymous referee for helpful comments and to Ian McAllister for the use of his programs for accessing the 1983 General Survey data.

This paper describes the unique features of the survey data upon which the study is based; provides an overview of the unemployment problem of recent migrants to Australia; and provides detailed analyses of the unemployment experiences of this group.

Data

The data used in this study are from the Institute's 1983 General Survey undertaken during May/June of that year. The sample comprised approximately 5,600 15 to 30-year-old residents of Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide. Around 2,300 respondents were born overseas. Extensive demographic and educational information was collected, together with details of the employment status profile of each respondent from the time of labour market entry in Australia to the date of the survey.

The sample used includes only those who answered all relevant questions and had been members of the full-time Australian labour force for one or more years. Two groups of migrants may usefully be distinguished. First, there are those who arrived in Australia after completing their formal education in an overseas country, and engaged in labour market activity more or less immediately after arrival. These are loosely referred to as 'arriving as adults'. Second, are those migrants who arrived in Australia as children, completed part or all of their formal education in this country, and then entered the labour market. This group is referred to as 'arriving as children'. The striking facts contained in the Harrison (1984) and Chapman and Miller (1984) papers pertain to the former group.

Description of unemployment in the first year

Table 1.1 presents unemployment rates of the overseas-born in their first year of Australian labour market activity, cross-classified by sex and type of migrant. These data are averages for 1967-1982.

Table 1.1: Unemployment rates in the first year of Australian labour market activity: overseas-born, cross-classified by sex, averages 1967-1982

Group	Total	Arrived as adults	Arrived as children
Males	17.6	17.4	17.7
Females	19.9	23.4	17.4

Unemployment rates in the first year of labour market experience were reasonably high - around 18% for overseas-born males and 20% for overseas-born females. Among males, the unemployment rate did not differ between migrants who arrived in Australia as children, and those who arrived as adults. Among females, however, the unemployment rate of those who arrived as adults was 6 percentage points higher than for the comparison group.

These figures are averages for 1967 to 1982. As demonstrated in Harrison (1984), the unemployment experience differs substantially between the early and

latter years of this period. A similar trend is evident in the survey data. The following two tables present results of ordinary least squares regression of the unemployment rate against a constant term and a linear time trend (Table 1.2) and against a constant term and the aggregate unemployment rate (Table 1.3). Only the coefficients on the time trend and unemployment rate variables are reported. All coefficients are significant at the 5 per cent level or higher.

Table 1.2: Relationships between unemployment in the first year of labour market activity in Australia and year of labour market entry 1967-1982 (overseas-born)

Group	Total	Arrived as adults	Arrived as children
Males	1.74	1.59	1.87
Females	1.90	2.36	1.57

According to the Table 1.2 data, the unemployment rate in the first year of Australian labour market activity has been increasing by between 1.59 and 2.36 percentage points per year. Both this rate of change and the greater increase among females arriving as adults than among their male counterparts are consistent with the national labour market information presented in Harrison for the shorter period 1973-1982. The adjustment process among first-year migrants appears, therefore, to have slowed considerably in recent years.

Table 1.3: Relationships between unemployment in the first year of labour market activity in Australia and the aggregate unemployment rate: 1967-1982 (overseas-born)

Group	Total	Arrived as adults	Arrived as children
Males	3.77	3.05	4.37
Females	4.62	5.84	3.73

The Table 1.3 data suggest that an increase of 1 percentage point in the aggregate unemployment rate (calculated from Labour Force Survey data) is associated with an increase of between 3.05 and 5.84 percentage points in the unemployment rate in the first year of attachment to the Australian labour market. Interestingly enough, the unemployment rate of Australian-born teenagers, another group of labour market entrants, is also between 3 and 5 times the aggregate unemployment rate.

Over the 15 years to 1982, the labour market performance of the overseas-born could have been affected by a number of important factors not directly reflected in either the Table 1.2 or Table 1.3 relationships. Included among these might be the influx of refugees and the changing birthplace mix of the migrant intake. These changes are modelled in the unemployment rate equations

estimated below. Before turning to these estimates, however, it will be useful to examine the concentration of unemployment.

Thirty-nine per cent of the 683 overseas-born males who met the sample eligibility criteria experienced some unemployment during their first year of Australian labour market activity. Of those with at least one spell of unemployment, 16% were unemployed for the entire first year of Australian labour market activity (6.3% of the sample). As outlined above, migrants may be distinguished according to whether they arrived in Australia as adults or as children. Among those who arrived as adults, 42% experienced some unemployment, and 5.3% were continuously unemployed during the first year of Australian labour market activity. For those who arrived as children the comparable figures were 36% and 7.1%. Thus, those arriving as adults were more likely to experience some unemployment, but were slightly less likely to be long-term unemployed. This latter feature could derive from the fact that they would, on average, be older during their first year of Australian labour market activity than the group who arrived as children.

Among the 611 females represented in the sample, 39% experienced some unemployment during the first year of Australian labour market activity and 22.4% of these (8.8% of the entire sample) were unemployed for the entire one-year period. Among those who arrived as adults, 45.5% experienced some unemployment, compared to 35.2% of the group who arrived as children. Of those who arrived as adults, 10.3% were unemployed for the entire one-year period, as were 7.8% of those who arrived as children.

Thus, between 35% and 45% of migrants experienced unemployment during their first year of labour market activity in Australia. The percentage figures are around 10 percentage points higher among migrants who arrived as adults. Unemployment, therefore, appears to be widely distributed. Still, there is a 'hard-core' of unemployment of between 5% and 10% of the groups studied.

Unemployment in the first year: detailed analysis

The analyses outlined below are based on estimation of unemployment rate equations of the form:[2]

UR = f(BP, Refugee, Education, Sex, Information, Year of Entry, AU)

The dependent variable (UR) is the fraction of the first year of labour market activity in Australia spent unemployed. The first exogenous variable listed is birthplace. This comprises six zero-one dummy variables for the major birthplace groups. The impact upon unemployment rates of being born in Greece, Italy, Yugoslavia, Vietnam, Arabic-speaking or Spanish-speaking countries is assessed relative to the unemployment rate of migrants from English-speaking countries. All migrants are distinguished according to refugee status. The refugee dummy variable is set equal to one if the individual entered Australia as a refugee, otherwise it is set equal to zero. 'Information' variables are entered in the estimating equation in an attempt to capture the impact of pre-migration knowledge about the availability of jobs or employment generally in Australia. Two forms are utilised for this variable. In the first instance a dichotomous variable is used, defined to equal one if the individual acquired job market information prior to migrating. The second specification comprises separate variables for (a) individuals who received their pre-migration information on Australian job opportunities from relatives, and (b) individuals who received their pre-migration information on Australian job opportunities from a government agency. The migrant's educational attainment, a linear time trend recording the year of labour market entry, and the aggregate unemployment

rate at the time of labour market entry (AU), are the remaining explanatory variables.

The dependent variable is bounded by zero and one. Accordingly, a logit function was specified and estimated using iterative weighted least squares (Nelder and Wedderburn 1972). Because the labour market experiences of the sexes differ substantially, separate analyses were conducted for males and females.

Parameter estimates for the logit unemployment rate model are presented in Tables 1.4 and 1.5 for overseas-born males and females respectively. These indicate the impact of the exogenous variables on the logarithmic odds of being unemployed rather than employed. Of greater interest to economists, however, is the impact of the exogenous variables on the unemployment rate. Additional calculations are required to generate these effects.

Two comments may assist the interpretation of the unemployment rate effects derived from the logit model. The first concerns the direction of impact on the unemployment rate of the variables listed in Tables 1.4 and 1.5. If a variable has a negative coefficient in these tables, then it will be associated with unemployment rate reductions. Conversely, if a variable has a positive coefficient it will be associated with higher unemployment rates. The second comment relates to the derivation of the magnitude of the effect of the exogenous variables on the unemployment rate. Following convention, the unemployment rate effects of continuous variables are calculated as the partial derivative of the unemployment rate with respect to the continuous variable. For an exogenous variable (X), this is given as $\partial U/\partial X = U(1-U)\hat{\beta}$, where $\hat{\beta}$ is the estimated coefficient on X in the logit model. All partial derivatives were evaluated at the sample mean unemployment rates. The unemployment rate effects for dummy variables are calculated using the following procedure. First, an unemployment rate is calculated for the control group (using mean values of all continuous variables). Second, an unemployment rate is calculated for the group which differs from the control group in that it has the characteristic listed in the left hand column of the table. The difference between the unemployment rates of these groups (eg. non-refugee and refugee) provides an estimate of the impact of the characteristic listed in the left hand column (eg. refugee status) on unemployment rates.[3] Unemployment rate effects calculated using these methods are presented in Table 1.6 [using the first specification of the information variable] and Table 1.7 [using the second specification of the information variable].

Males: arrived as adults

According to the first column of either Table 1.6 or 1.7, the aggregate unemployment rate is not a significant determinant of the unemployment experiences of overseas-born males who arrived in Australia as adults. However, the unemployment rates of this group are characterised by a pronounced secular trend. The Table 1.6 estimates show that their unemployment rate has been increasing by around 1.3 percentage points per year. The Table 1.6 data also indicate that an additional year of education lowers the unemployment rate, but only by around 0.7 percentage points. Miller also reports that the unemployment rate reductions associated with extra years of schooling among the overseas-born are, in general, quite small. This contrasts with the considerable reduction in unemployment rates associated with additional years of education among Australian-born labour market entrants (Miller 1984).

The dummy variables for the major birthplace groups reveal that individuals born in Greece, Yugoslavia or Vietnam had unemployment rates significantly

Table 1.4: Parameter estimates of logit models of unemployment, overseas-born males

Variable	Arrived as adults		Arrived as children		Total	
Constant	-4.137	-4.008	-2.202	-2.198	-3.458	-3.436
	(6.31)	(6.08)	(1.71)	(3.77)	(8.40)	(8.33)
Aggregate unemployment	-0.0448	-0.0312	0.4134	0.4159	0.1989	0.2001
	(0.67)	(0.47)	(6.48)	(6.51)	(4.44)	(4.47)
Year entered labour market	0.0909	0.0840	-0.0150	-0.0160	0.0519	0.0512
	(2.93)	(2.69)	(0.52)	(0.55)	(2.55)	(2.52)
Education	-0.0494	-0.0504	-0.0892	-0.0887	-0.0594	-0.0599
	2.88)	(2.90)	(4.55)	(4.53)	(4.79)	(4.82)
Refugee	0.4425	0.4891	0.7986	0.8144	0.6344	0.6453
	(1.99)	(2.19)	(4.13)	(4.20)	(4.49)	(4.57)
Information	-0.1550	(a)	-0.0603	(a)	-0.3462	(a)
	(1.39)		(0.25)		(3.78)	
Birthplace group						
Greece	0.6220	0.5817	0.4872	0.4930	0.4660	0.4594
	(2.10)	(1.96)	(3.77)	(3.81)	(4.06)	(4.00)
Italy	-0.0578	-0.0634	-0.1300	-0.1236	0.0711	-0.0728
	(0.16)	(0.18)	(1.05)	(0.99)	(0.61)	(0.63)
Yugoslavia	0.5219	0.5234	-0.2258	-0.2206	-0.0554	-0.0559
	(1.73)	(1.73)	(1.72)	(1.68)	(0.47)	(0.48)
Vietnam	0.7554	0.7206	-0.0726	-0.0953	-0.1588	-0.1675
	(2.34)	(2.23)	(0.26)	(0.34)	(0.94)	(0.99)
Arabic-speaking countries	0.3028	0.3353	-0.3965	-0.3916	-0.3390	-0.3286
	(1.10)	(1.22)	(2.34)	(2.31)	(2.73)	(2.64)
Spanish-speaking countries	0.3214	0.0800	0.2802	0.3243	0.1205	0.0428
	(0.98)	(0.24)	(1.44)	(1.63)	(0.77)	(0.26)
Source of information						
Relative	(a)	-0.3936	(a)	0.2288	(a)	-0.4936
		(2.72)		(0.63)		(3.86)
Government	(a)	0.1616	(a)	-0.2400	(a)	-0.1919
		(1.05)		(0.79)		(1.53)
X^2	193.0	210.0	314.0	315.0	430.0	433.0
Sample size	304	304	379	379	683	60

Note: (a) = not entered
Asymptotic 't' statistics in parentheses

Table 1.5: Parameter estimates of logit models of unemployment, overseas-born females

Variable	Arrived as adults		Arrived as children		Total	
Constant	-3.385	-3.376	-3.077	-3.070	-2.487	-2.42
	(5.30)	(5.28)	(5.05)	(5.03)	(6.31)	(6.29)
Aggregate unemployment	0.2388	0.2389	0.2886	0.2947	0.3044	0.3061
	(3.70)	(3.70)	(4.44)	(4.44)	(6.97)	(7.00)
Year entered labour market	0.0470	0.0473	0.0067	0.0063	-0.0042	-0.0037
	(1.60)	(1.61)	(0.22)	(0.21)	(0.22)	(0.19)
Education	-0.0462	-0.0465	-0.0139	-0.0155	-0.0395	-0.0409
	(3.02)	(3.03)	(0.73)	(0.81)	(3.38)	(3.51)
Refugee	-0.1578	-0.148	1.1090	1.1120	0.3589	-0.3855
	(0.66)	(0.63)	(4.78)	(4.79)	(2.13)	(2.29)
Information	-0.4008	(a)	0.4307	(a)	-0.3258	(a)
	(3.52)		(1.92)		(3.41)	
Birthplace group						
Greece	-0.3047	-0.3205	-0.0182	-0.0253	-0.1253	-0.1405
	(1.03)	(1.07)	(0.12)	(0.17)	(0.96)	(1.08)
Italy	0.8325	0.8114	0.1478	0.1308	0.1638	0.1471
	(2.60)	(2.50)	(1.25)	(1.10)	(1.50)	(1.34)
Yugoslavia	-0.0642	-0.0765	-0.1097	-0.1205	-0.0721	-0.0823
	(0.26)	(0.31)	(0.83)	(0.93)	(0.64)	(0.73)
Vietnam	0.7862	0.7612	-1.8740	-1.8620	0.3781	0.3247
	(2.52)	(2.39)	(4.75)	(4.78)	(1.99)	(1.70)
Arabic-speaking countries	0.2993	0.2798	-0.0408	-0.0536	0.1431	0.1150
	(1.26)	(1.16)	(0.25)	(0.32)	(1.16)	(0.93)
Spanish-speaking countries	0.1694	0.1840	1.2390	1.2390	0.7007	0.7539
	(0.67)	(0.72)	(7.14)	(7.15)	(5.23)	(5.53)
Source of information						
Relative	(a)	-0.3707	(a)	0.9673	(a)	-0.1390
		(2.70)		(2.34)		(1.09)
Government	(a)	-0.4515	(a)	0.2549	(a)	-0.5159
		(2.60)		(0.98)		(3.85)
x^2	308.0	308.0	249.0	251.0	491.0	495.0
Sample size	252	252	359	359	611	611

Note: (a) = not entered
Asymptotic 't' statistics in parentheses

Table 1.6: Unemployment rate effects calculated from logit unemployment model (first specification of information variable)

Variable	Males (1)	(2)	(3)	Females (4)	(5)	(6)
Control group	8.81	15.20	14.92	17.37	14.58	15.62
Aggregate unemployment	-0.65	6.03*	2.88*	4.28*	4.15*	4.85*
Year entered labour market	1.31*	-0.22	0.75*	0.84	0.10	-0.07
Education	-0.71*	-1.30*	-0.86*	-0.83*	-0.20	-0.63*
Refugee	4.26*	13.29*	9.93*	-2.15	19.52	5.33*
Information	-1.17	-0.76	-3.88*	-5.03*	6.22#	-3.83*
Birthplace group						
Greece	6.44*	7.39*	6.92*	-3.95	-0.23	-1.58
Italy	-0.45	-1.60	0.93	15.21*	1.94	2.28
Yugoslavia	5.19#	-2.69#	-0.69	-0.90	-1.31	-0.93
Vietnam	8.25*	-0.91	-1.91	14.20*	-12.30*	5.65
Arabic-speaking countries	2.76	-0.50*	-3.81*	4.72	-0.50	1.98
Spanish-speaking countries	2.95	3.97	1.60	2.57	22.50*	11.55*

* significant at the 5 per cent level
\# significant at the 10 per cent level

(1) Males arriving as adults [Source: Table 1.4, column (1)]
(2) Males arriving as children [Source: Table 1.4, column (3)]
(3) Total Males [Source: Table 1.4, column (5)]
(4) Females arriving as adults [Source: Table 1.5, column (1)]
(5) Females arriving as children [Source: Table 1.5, column (3)]
(6) Total females [Source: Table 1.5, column (5)]

Note: The unemployment rate effects for the aggregate unemployment, year entered the labour market and education variables are calculated as partial derivatives evaluated at the mean unemployment rate. The unemployment rate effects for all dummy variables are calculated as the predicted difference between the unemployment rate of the control group and the group having the characteristic listed in the left-hand column of the table.

Table 1.7: Unemployment rate effects calculated from logit unemployment model (second specification of information variable)

Variable	Males			Females		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Control group	8.73	15.21	14.96	17.57	14.65	15.76
Aggregate unemployment	-0.45	6.07*	2.90*	4.28*	4.24*	4.88*
Year entered labour market	1.21*	-0.23	0.74*	0.85	0.09	-0.06
Education	-0.73*	-1.29*	-0.87*	-0.83*	-0.22	-0.65*
Refugee	4.77*	13.56*	10.51*	-2.07	19.65	5.81*
Birthplace group						
Greece	5.88*	7.46*	6.82 *	-4.17	-0.31	-1.78
Italy	-0.49	-1.52	-0.90	14.86*	1.71	2.05
Yugoslavia	5.17#	-2.62#	-0.70	-1.08	-1.44	-1.06
Vietnam	7.70*	-1.18	-2.01	13.77*	-12.06*	4.80#
Arabic-speaking countries	3.07	-4.37*	-3.72*	4.43	-0.66	1.59
Spanish-speaking countries	0.66	4.65	0.55	2.83	22.56*	12.69*
Source of information						
Relative	-2.67*	3.18	-5.26*	-4.74*	16.46*	-1.76
Government	1.38	-2.83	-2.28	-5.62*	3.84	-5.72*

* significant at the 5 per cent level
\# significant at the 10 per cent level

(1) Males arriving as adults [Source: Table 1.4, column (2)]
(2) Males arriving as children [Source: Table 1.4, column (4)]
(3) Total Males [Source: Table 1.4, column (6)]
(4) Females arriving as adults [Source: Table 1.5, column (2)]
(5) Females arriving as children [Source: Table 1.5, column (4)]
(6) Total females [Source: Table 1.5, column (6)]

Note: The unemployment rate effect for the aggregate unemployment, year entered the labour market and education variables are calculated as partial derivatives evaluated at the mean unemployment rate. The unemployment rate effects for all dummy variables are calculated as the predicted difference between the unemployment rate of the control group and the group having the characteristic listed in the left-hand column of the table.

higher than the English-speaking control group. In the case of males born in Greece, unemployment rates were 6.4 percentage points higher than the control group: for those born in Yugoslavia unemployment rates were 5.2 percentage points higher while an 8.3 percentage point unemployment rate disadvantage was indicated for those born in Vietnam. It is noted that refugees have predicted unemployment rates 4.26 percentage points higher than those experienced by non-refugees in their initial year of labour market activity. Interestingly enough, the first specification of the information variable [column (1)] is insignificant. However, inclusion of the more precisely measured variables in the estimating equation is more revealing. The 'information relative' variable is highly significant and indicates a 2.67 percentage point reduction in predicted unemployment rates during the first year of Australian labour market activity. The 'information government' variable is insignificant, however. This is an important result, as the job market information aspect appears to be one policy parameter which would be relatively easy for government to use. It is noted that this finding is consistent with the assertion in the Green Paper on Immigration Policies and Australia's Population (1977): 'Recent studies demonstrate that many migrants have relied on personal and family contacts for information and advice about Australia and for assistance to obtain their initial employment' (p.38).

Males: arrived as children

The second set of estimates in Table 1.4 is for males who arrived in Australia as children. For this sample none of the information variables are significant. This result is not totally unexpected, however. While the provision of pre-migration job market information is likely to be important among those migrants who arrived as adults, migrants arriving as children would have ample opportunity to acquire first-hand information on Australian job opportunities more relevant to their specific needs.

The unemployment rates for this group of overseas-born males in their first year of labour market activity in Australia are characterised by a pronounced cyclical effect. In other words, as conditions in the Australian labour market have deteriorated, the level of unemployment which they have experienced has increased. The results suggest that a one percentage point increase in the aggregate unemployment rate is associated with a 6 percentage point increase in the unemployment rate of labour market entrants. However, there is no evidence of a secular increase in unemployment rates.

Comparison of columns (1) and (2) in either Table 1.6 or 1.7 reveals several interesting features relating to the relative unemployment rate effects of the exogenous variables. First, an additional year of education was associated with a greater unemployment rate reduction for those migrants who arrived in Australia as children than for those who arrived as adults - 1.30 percentage points lower compared to 0.71 percentage points lower unemployment rates. This could perhaps reflect the differing impacts of Australian and overseas education. Second, the very large disadvantage for refugees who arrived in Australia as children is noted - 13.29 percentage points compared to the 4.26 percentage point effect for refugees arriving as adults. To some extent, however, this difference may reflect hidden unemployment - refugees arriving in Australia as adults may be supported on various government or community-based programs and not enter the labour market unless they have some guarantee of a job. The same may not be true for refugees arriving as children. Certainly, this scenario accurately characterises the involvement of many community/church groups with Vietnamese refugees.

Females: arrived as adults

Table 1.5 presents estimates of the unemployment experiences in the first year of Australian labour market activity of overseas-born females. The unemployment rate of female migrants who arrived as adults exhibits a strong cyclical effect. A one percentage point increase in the aggregate unemployment rate is associated with a 4.28 percentage point increase in the unemployment rate of overseas-born female labour market entrants. Surprisingly, the unemployment rates of this group are not characterised by a secular trend. This contrasts with the data presented in Harrison (1984) and earlier in this paper which clearly exhibit a secular increase in the recent migrant:aggregate unemployment rate ratio. This difference could, however, be attributable to the control for the other factors introduced into the unemployment rate equations. Additional years of education are associated with an unemployment rate reduction of around 0.8 percentage points per year of education. This reasonably minor effect is similar to that established for males. Surprisingly, the refugee status variable is not statistically significant. This finding possibly reflects the same forces which produced the much smaller unemployment rate effect for the refugee variable in the equation restricted to overseas-born males arriving in Australia as adults. The set of birthplace dummy variables indicates that only migrants born in Vietnam or Italy had unemployment rates which were significantly different from the unemployment rate of the English-speaking control group. In both cases a reasonably sizeable unemployment rate disadvantage is indicated. Finally, if a female migrant received information on Australian job opportunities before migrating, then this is associated with statistically significant unemployment rate reductions. It is noted, however, that in contrast with the results for males, when separate variables are included in the equation for each source of information, both are significant, although the 'information government' variable is associated with the greater unemployment rate reduction. There is one possible explanation for this difference. Female labour force participation has increased rapidly over the past several decades. This has been accompanied by changes in the spectrum of jobs which are viewed as 'female-type' jobs. The female labour market might, therefore, be described as in a state of flux. In such a dynamic environment, past experience of relatives would possibly have little relevant informational content for the potential female migrant. The male job market, on the other hand, is reasonably stable and past experience of relatives possibly provides an accurate guide to the future prospects of potential male migrants.

Females: arrived as children

The Table 1.5 results show that the unemployment rate in the first year of labour market activity of female migrants who arrived in Australia as children varies pro-cyclically. An increase of one percentage point in the aggregate unemployment rate was associated with a 4.15 percentage point increase in the unemployment rate of this group. As was the case with male migrants who arrived in Australia as children, the year of labour market entry variable was statistically insignificant.

The refugee variable is highly significant, and indicates a rather substantial unemployment rate disadvantage. Comparison of columns 5 and 6 in either Table 1.6 or 1.7 indicates that refugee status is associated with a greater unemployment rate effect in the equation for migrants who arrived as children than in that for those who arrived as adults. A similar finding was recorded for males. There are two birthplace dummy variables associated with significant coefficients. First, migrants from Vietnam had lower unemployment rates than the English-speaking control group (holding constant refugee status),

while migrants from the South American countries had significantly higher unemployment rates than the control group. In both cases the unemployment rate effects were quite large, 12.03 and 22.50 percentage points respectively.

One puzzle concerning the estimates for this group is the positive coefficient attached to the information variable. However, as noted earlier, we expect that the pre-migration variable is only meaningful in the equation for the overseas-born arriving as adults. A further relevant consideration is that the number of migrants who arrived as children and who reported receiving labour market information prior to migration is quite small. Only around 3% fell into this category [c.f. around 28% of adults]. Less than 1% received information from relatives. Thus, as the estimates for this group are based on so few observations, little importance should be attached to them.

Conclusion

The findings discussed above highlight a number of features of recent settlers' labour market performance.

The relatively high unemployment rates experienced by overseas-born labour market entrants were reasonably widespread across birthplace groups. Only a limited number of the birthplace dummy variables were significant. Of note are the significantly higher unemployment rates experienced by males born in Greece, males and females born in Vietnam who arrived in Australia as adults, and Italian-born females who arrived as adults. The changing birthplace composition of Australia's migrant intake could therefore explain only a relatively small part of the decline in the relative labour market performance of recent arrivals.

Refugee status was, in general, associated with considerable increases in the unemployment rate, particularly among individuals who arrived as children. It is suggested that the difference in the unemployment rate effects associated with this variable among migrants arriving as adults and as children reflects, in part, hidden unemployment.

Additional years of educational attainment are generally associated with reductions in the predicted unemployment rate. Consistent with the results established by Miller (1984), the unemployment rate-educational attainment relationship is reasonably flat. For example, there is predicted to be less than 3 percentage points difference between the unemployment rates of a migrant arriving as an adult with a school-leaving age of 14 years and an otherwise identical individual who has a school leaving age of 18 years.

Other than for male migrants who arrived as adults, the unemployment experience of recent migrants varied pro-cyclically - a 1 percentage point increase in the aggregate unemployment rate was associated with between a 4.15 and 6.03 percentage point increase in the unemployment rate of recent migrants. However, unemployment rates among male migrants who arrived as adults were characterised by an upward secular trend.

Finally, if a migrant who arrived as an adult received information on Australian job opportunities prior to migrating, then unemployment rates were generally significantly lower. In the case of males, it was information received from relatives that was the important determinant of unemployment rates. In the case of females, however, information received from a government agency was also significantly and negatively related to unemployment rates. A tentative conclusion from this result is that government agencies, through provision of labour market information, should be able to influence the level of unemployment among recent settlers.

Footnotes

1. Inglis and Stromback (1983) show that in recent years proportionately fewer persons have arrived from the traditional European source countries, while the share of the Asian-born and New Zealand-born has increased somewhat.

2. Given the mixture of continuous and discrete exogenous variables in the unemployment rate equations, the constant term in the logit model, upon transformation, provides a prediction of the unemployment rate of a hypothetical non-refugee migrant from an English-speaking country who did not acquire information on Australian job opportunities prior to migrating, entered the Australian labour market in 1967 with zero education and under the hypothetical circumstances of a zero aggregate unemployment rate.

3. The logit model is non-separable in the endogenous variables. It therefore automatically allows for interactions among variables (Hanushek and Jackson 1977). Because of this feature, however, the effect of exogenous variables on the probability of unemployment will be a function of the probability itself. Care needs to be exercised in the interpretation of the results: the approach adopted appears to be that most commonly utilised in the literature.

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EXPLAINING UNEMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE: SOCIAL, STRUCTURAL AND BIRTHPLACE VARIATIONS IN AUSTRALIA*

Ian McAllister

Unemployment is frequently regarded as one of the greatest social ills of modern society, particularly in those countries which have been most affected by the recessions of the 1970s and 1980s.[1] In large measure this concern has stemmed from the knowledge that unemployment affects those who are least able to cope with its consequences, such as the young. As the level of unemployment has increased steadily among the prime age workforce (those aged between 25 and 54), youth unemployment has increased dramatically. In countries with large migrant populations, such as Australia and the United States, it is the overseas-born, as well as the young, who suffer most during a recession. To be both young and a migrant is therefore a double handicap in the labour market.

Various explanations focusing on the demand-side of the economy have been put forward to account for this higher rate of youth unemployment. By contrast, relatively little is known about the individual factors which serve to increase or decrease a person's risk of suffering unemployment during their working lives. To what extent is unemployment affected by age as against experience within the labour force, and by differing educational levels? Do persons who normally work in certain jobs experience greater risk than others? To what extent do these factors differ between those born in a particular country and those born outside it?

By using unique occupational history data collected in Australia in 1983, this paper seeks to expand the pool of knowledge about unemployment in three ways. Firstly, it argues that unemployment can only be measured over a working career, and that measuring unemployment at one time point will lead to weak or even misleading results. Secondly, it specifically examines the unemployment experience of those who have been in the labour market for a relatively short time, and relates this to age, gender, education and work experience. Thirdly, differences between birthplace groups are assessed, and these differences are divided between those which are common to all groups, such as age or education, and those which appear to be more closely related to birthplace.

Previous research

Research on unemployment has been influenced by the status attainment model, and the finding that, as occupational status increases, so too does age, labour market experience, and the possession of better skills (Blau and Duncan 1967; Duncan, Featherman and Duncan 1972). From this the concept of human capital has developed, and the idea that as a person's resources accumulate over their working career, so do the rewards that they can expect to receive in the labour market (Becker 1975). Similarly, studies of unemployment have shown that aspersons get older, the risk they run of suffering unemployment declines (Clogg 1975; Sullivan 1978).

Two main explanations emphasising the supply-side of the economy have been put forward to account for this higher level of unemployment among the young. First, as a person gets older and acquires family responsibilities, the 'costs' of moving to another job - in income and dislocation, but also in loss of

* The data on which these analyses are based were originally collected by the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs, which bears no responsibility for the analyses or interpretations presented herein. My thanks to Frank Jones, James Jupp, Jonathan Kelley, Mariah Evans and an anonymous reviewer for comments on an earlier version of the paper.

seniority - become substantial. There is, therefore, an economic incentive to remain in an occupation, even when it appears unsuitable to an individual's qualifications and experience. Secondly, individuals are usually likely to find a suitable job when they are older, and have had more experience of the labour market. Thus, there is less frictional unemployment among older workers. In Australia, it has been shown that teenagers actually spend less time than prime age (25 to 54 years) males in unemployment, but that they are five times more likely to leave jobs than prime age males (Foster and Gregory 1982: 131).

On the demand side, the economic recession is often blamed for youth unemployment, in so far as school-leavers cannot get jobs, and those who have been employed for a short period are quickly made redundant on the rule of 'last in, first out'. Other explanations see wider changes in the economic and occupational structure of advanced industrial societies as important. For example, the rising costs of youth labour relative to adult labour may make it more profitable for an employer to hire a more experienced worker at little extra cost (Blandy 1979; Stricker and Sheehan 1981). There has also been increased competition from married women returning to the workforce, and an interaction between this competition and the availability of part-time jobs (Creigh and Sloan 1982; Gregory and Duncan 1980).

The position of different racial or birthplace groups in the pattern of unemployment is unclear. On the one hand, the aggregate statistics show that non-whites generally suffer more than whites, and migrants more than those locally born.

On the other hand, there is little research on the inter-relationship between different factors such as length of residence in a country, English language proficiency and skills. In the United States, research into white/non-white differences in unemployment has explained the higher non-white levels of unemployment by the lack of jobs in local labour markets and by discrimination, but factors which focus on the different levels of job tenure between the two groups also appear significant (Gilroy 1974). This has the additional consequence that economic downturns are likely to affect disproportionately those with limited job tenure (DiPrete 1981).

The research that has been conducted in Australia into the unemployment levels of the overseas-born and the Australian-born have shown only a minor disadvantage among the overseas-born (Miller 1982). Moreover, there would appear to be little evidence of a dual labour market between the overseas- and Australian-born, and in so far as one exists, it is confined to recently arrived non-English-speaking migrants. As these migrants become integrated into Australian society, they move out of the inner city area where dual labour markets are most likely to flourish (Blandy et al. 1977: 31). However, these studies are based on data collected in the 1970s, and the United States research would lead us to expect that the economic recession, while not only harming the young disproportionately, has also disproportionately affected the overseas-born.

The focus of the research results presented here are the two groups which have been disadvantaged by the increase in unemployment in the late 1970s and early 1980s in Australia: the young and the overseas-born. The young are defined as those aged between 16 and 30, an age range which permits analysis not only of those in the most vulnerable teenage groups aged 15 to 19, but also young adults aged 20 to 24 who are gaining experience and adapting to the labour market, and those aged between 25 and 30 whose economic position should be relatively stable. The primary focus among the overseas-born is on those who have been born in non-English-speaking countries, since research has shown that

the British component among the Australian overseas-born population is socio-economically similar to the Australian-born themselves (Kelley and McAllister 1984a). Australia is a particularly appropriate country to make these comparisons since the massive post-1947 immigration program has resulted in a population which is some 20% overseas-born, twice the proportion in the United States.

The present study

Data

The data come from a survey carried out by the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs in high migrant areas of Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney in June 1983. This survey (referred to as the 1983 General Survey) collected a wide range of information, including details of family background, educational attainments and occupational histories, from overseas-born migrants aged between 16 and 30. Five birthplace groups are analysed here, those born in Italy, Greece, Yugoslavia, Vietnam and Arabic-speaking countries. In addition, persons born in Australia were included as a control group. For details of the survey design and methodology, see AIMA (1985: Appendices 3 and 4).

The analyses are limited to those respondents who reported labour market experience, including those who had been unemployed since leaving school. Respondents who were still at school when the survey was carried out, or who had not otherwise entered the labour force, were excluded from the analysis.[2]

The measurement of unemployment

Since the early 1970s, the general rise in unemployment levels has affected all age and birthplace groups. In 1972, the unemployment rate in Australia stood at just over 2% of the labour force, climbing to 6% by 1979, and was just over 9% when the survey used here was carried out. These figures, however, hide the differential impact of rising unemployment among age and birthplace categories. As Table 2.1 shows, the unemployment rate for Australian-born teenagers (aged 15 to 19) increased 15 points between 1972 and 1984, while the comparable figure for the overseas-born increased by 19 points. Young adults aged 20 to 24 fared slightly better. The unemployment rate among the Australian-born increased by 9 points, to 12%, and for the overseas-born by 13 points to 17%. In addition, the mean duration of unemployment over the period increased from 13 weeks in 1975 to 32 weeks in 1983 for teenagers, and from 18 weeks in 1977 for young adults to 42 weeks in 1983 (AIMA 1985: Ch.1).

On *a priori* grounds, measuring unemployment would appear to be relatively simple. Finding out who is, or is not, working among the labour force on a particular day produces two separate categories: employed and unemployed. However, this measure treats equally a person who has been unemployed for a short period, perhaps a few days, and one who has been unemployed for a longer period, perhaps several months or years. It would seem likely that the characteristics that are related to several days of unemployment may not be the same as those that are related to an extended period of unemployment. To demonstrate this, Table 2.2 shows two separate multiple regression analyses of this 'point-in-time' unemployment, using the 1981 Australian Census (One Percent Sample)[3] and the 1983 General Survey. For each of the four groups, three figures are shown. The mean for each variable reflects the distribution of that attribute in the population as a whole. For example, the mean age of the Australian group in the 1981 Census is 23.1 years. The second column in

Table 2.1: Unemployment among youth in Australia, 1972-84*

	1972		1984		Change, 1972-84	
	Rate (1)	Number (2)	Rate (3)	Number (4)	Rate (5)	Number (6)
Age 15 to 19						
Australian-born	6.4	35,450	21.7	146,610	+15.3	+111,160
Overseas-born	7.1	6,310	26.5	25,600	+19.4	+19,290
Age 20 to 24						
Australian-born	2.7	17,530	12.1	108,620	+9.4	+91,090
Overseas-born	3.7	6,530	17.1	31,170	+13.4	+24,640

Source: AIMA (1985: Table 1.4)

* annual averages, calculated for the labour force

each group gives the partial regression coefficient (b) and the third column the standardised regression coefficient (beta).

Table 2.2 shows that, for the Australian-born in both analyses, tertiary education reduces the risk of unemployment. The partial regression coefficients of -3 and -2, for the 1981 Census and 1983 General Survey, respectively, suggest that each additional year of tertiary education reduces the probability of unemployment by between 2% and 3%, other things being equal. Increased labour force participation also, as we might expect, consistently serves to reduce the probability of unemployment, by 4% for each additional year of participation in the 1981 Census analysis, and by 2% in the 1983 General Survey.

Among the overseas-born of non-English-speaking background (identified in tables as NESB), only improved English language proficiency consistently acts to reduce unemployment between the two surveys.[4] The partial regression coefficient of -9 in 1981 implies that someone with excellent English would be 9% less likely to suffer unemployment than someone with poor English, other things being equal.

Despite these patterns, however, the proportion of variance explained in each of the four regression equations - 4% for each - suggests that unemployment is almost random across the population. The number of statistically significant variables in the 1981 Census analysis is due less to the strength of the statistical relationships than to the large number of cases in the data set. Clearly, an alternative method of measuring unemployment is needed.

An alternative is to measure the duration of a person's unemployment, either as the total duration of unemployment or as the average of all durations of unemployment. Once again, however, this measure fails to distinguish various categories of unemployed. For example, duration of unemployment does not distinguish between those who have been unemployed for a short period but who have had only a relatively short time on the labour market, and those who have been unemployed for a short period extended over a much longer period on the labour market. Thus, a person who has been unemployed for a total of six

Table 2.2: Explaining point-in-time unemployment, 1981 and 1983

	1981 Census (One Percent Sample)						1983 General Survey					
	Australian-born			NESB migrants			Australian-born			NESB migrants		
	(Mean)	b	beta	(Mean)	b	beta	(Mean)	b	beta	(Mean)	b	beta
Ascribed characteristics												
Age (years)	(23.1)	4**	.69**	(25.0)	-2	-.07	(23.8)	0	.01	(25.1)	-1	-.04
Gender (1=male, 0=female)	(.58)	1**	.02**	(.61)	1	.02	(.49)	3	.03	(.53)	-3	-.03
Education												
Primary, secondary (years)	(10.6)	-0	-.01	(10.3)	1	.04	(11.1)	-5**	-.14**	(11.3)	-1	-.01
Tertiary (years)	(.51)	-3**	-.11**	(.38)	1	.03	(.42)	-2*	-.6	(.20)	-1	-.02
Labour force participation												
Labour force participation (years)	(6.6)	-4**	-.55**	(8.5)	2	.22	(5.4)	-2**	-.18**	(5.8)	-1*	-.08*
Migrant characteristics												
Length of residence in Australia (years)		-- na --		(13.3)	-0	-.07		-- na --		(11.6)	-1*	-.11*
English language proficiency (0 to 1)		-- na --		(7.0)	-9**	-.12**		-- na --		(5.7)	-2*	-.10*
Constant		81			61			15			33	
R-squared		4			4			4			4	

Sources: 1981 Census One percent Census Sample; 1983 General Survey

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Multiple regression analysis showing partial regression coefficients (bs) and standardised regression coefficients (betas) predicting probability of being unemployed. Partial regression coefficients have been multiplied by 100 to reflect percentage probabilities. The analysis is restricted to those with labour force experience, and the 1981 Census analysis is further restricted to those aged 15 to 30 and among the non-English-speaking background (NESB) category to those born in Italy, Yugoslavia, Greece, Vietnam, and Arab countries.

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months but in the labour force for one year is given the same weight as someone who has been unemployed for six months but in the labour force for six years. While the total duration of unemployment for these two is the same, one has spent all his or her working life unemployed, the other has spent about one-twelfth of his or her working life unemployed. To take account of the varied unemployment experiences of individuals, and the relationship of this to their work experiences, an alternative measure is used here. The approach used is to weight total length of unemployment by length of labour force participation: the resulting measure of unemployment experience is calculated by dividing the total length of unemployment (in months) by years in the labour force, resulting in mean months of unemployment per year of labour force participation. In the example used above, the two individuals would have quite different measures in terms of unemployment experience: six months per labour force year for the first, and one month per labour force year for the second.

Table 2.3 shows the different proportions of unemployment between the birthplace groups, measured by 'point-in-time' unemployment, and by unemployment experience. With 38% of their current labour force unemployed, the Vietnamese-born had the highest rate in 1983. The Australian-born proportion was 22%, the only lower proportion being that of the Italian-born, who recorded a figure of 16%. The three columns showing unemployment experience demonstrate the necessity of weighting duration of unemployment by period in the labour force. Thus, while the variation in period in the labour force is relatively small (ranging from just under 5 years for the Vietnamese-born to nearly 7 years for the Italian-born) the average total duration of unemployment ranges, once again, from a low of 7 months for the Italian-born to over 18 months for the Vietnamese-born. The resulting measures of unemployment experience give the Italian-born the lowest figure (1.1 months per labour force year) compared to 1.9 for the Australian-born and, at the other extreme, the Vietnamese-born (3.8 months per labour force year).

This measure of unemployment has several important advantages over the alternatives already discussed. Since it is effectively a longitudinal measure, it takes account of unemployment experienced over a working career, rather than at one time point. In addition, it overcomes the drawback suffered by other longitudinal measures by taking account of time in the labour force. The main disadvantage is that, precisely because it is longitudinal, it assumes an equal weight for everyone regardless of the period when they entered the labour force. For example, two exactly similar unemployment experiences - one gained in the relative prosperity of the early 1970s, the other in the recession of the early 1980s - would be given equal weight in the analysis. One method of overcoming this problem - building in additional weights for the period in which the unemployment experience was gained - was rejected on the grounds that it would have made the statistical model too complicated and interpretation of the results unnecessarily difficult.

Measurement of other variables

Initially, a wide range of variables were included in the analysis to reflect the varied backgrounds and life time experiences of the respondents. These variables measured such factors as migrant characteristics (citizenship, refugee status, family networks before arrival, birthplace of parents, length of residence, English language proficiency and community language maintenance), family background (father's education and occupation, and unemployment experience), age and gender. Data were also collected on each person's employment history (both the type of job and its industrial location), labour force participation (both in Australia and overseas) and education (primary, secondary, technical, higher, and whether or not this was gained overseas).

Table 2.3: Unemployment among birthplace groups, 1983

Birthplace	Point in time [a] %	Unemployment experience [b] A: Total unemploy. (months)	B: Total lab.force (years)	Unemployment experience (A/B)	(N)
Australia	22	9.9	5.2	1.9	(2,422)
Italy	16	7.3	6.6	1.1	(255)
Greece	23	12.2	6.1	2.0	(191)
Yugoslavia	30	10.9	5.2	2.1	(250)
Arabic-speaking countries	30	12.4	5.4	2.3	(208)
Vietnam	38	18.2	4.8	3.8	(345)
(Total NESB)	(28)	(13.2)	(5.5)	(2.4)	(1,249)

Source: 1983 General Survey

a as a percentage of the current labour force
b for those with labour force experience only

Finally, a range of variables was included which measured the social networks of individuals and identified their attitudes to work.

From this pool of items, eleven factors were identified as significant influences on unemployment experience, two of which (length of residence and English language proficiency) apply only to the overseas-born: age, gender, length of residence in Australia, primary, secondary, technical and higher education, working while at school, English language proficiency, labour force participation, occupational status[5], and working in a non-manual occupation. The means and scoring for these variables are presented in Appendix Table A. There are few differences between the two groups in terms of age or gender distribution, but more substantial variations emerge in educational attainment: while each group has approximately the same level of primary and secondary education - just over 11 years - the Australian-born have about twice the level of technical and higher education of the overseas-born. In addition, more than 1 in 3 of the Australian-born have worked while at school (either vacation or part-time work), compared to about 1 in 8 of the overseas-born. There are also differences in occupational status, the mean for the Australian-born scoring just over 30 on the status scale (representing a job such as a tailor, a plumber or a clerical worker), compared to 19 for the average overseas-born (for example, a painter or a truck driver).

Method

The analysis relies on ordinary least squares regression methods, which assume that the variables are linear and additive (Hanushek and Jackson 1977; Kmenta

1971). In some cases these assumptions are not met, and for that reason curvilinear terms are included in the equations, for example, the inclusion of variables for age and age squared. The quadratic terms permit a smooth curve with a single inflection point (Hanushek and Jackson 1977: 96-108). To avoid problems of rounding error caused by the high correlation between the original variable and its squared equivalent, the quadratic term takes the form of (using age as an example), (age minus k) squared, where k is the constant near the mean for age (Kelley and McAllister 1984b: 174-176; Mosteller and Tukey 1977: 285).

The result is two equations, Eq [1] applying to the Australian-born, Eq.[2] to the overseas-born:

UnemExp = a + b1Age + b2AgeSq + b3Gender + b4EducYrs + b5TechYrs + b6HEducYrs + b7SchWk + b8LabfExp + b9LabfExpSq + b10Status + b11StatusSq + b12WhiteC [Eq 1]

and

UnemExp = a + b1Age + b2AgeSq + b3Gender + b4LthRes + b5LthResSq + b6EducYrs + b7TechYrs + b8HEducYrs + b9SchWk + b10LabfExp + b11LabfExpSq + b12Status + b13StatusSq + b14WhiteC + b15Eng + b16EngSq [Eq 2]

where a is the constant term, and b the partial regression coefficient for the variable in question. Finally, missing values are treated by the 'pair-wise' deletion procedure, which is statistically preferable to the usual alternatives (Hertel 1976).

Explaining unemployment experience

The aggregate statistics have already suggested that certain groups have a higher propensity to suffer unemployment than others, for example the young and the Vietnamese-born. It remains to be seen, however, how far these patterns persist once other factors have been taken into account. For example, to be young also means to have less experience in the labour market and less marketable skills generally. Similarly, to be a Vietnamese migrant also means to have had shorter residence in Australia - and therefore to have less knowledge of local customs and behaviour - and generally to have limited English proficiency.

To estimate the effect of various factors on unemployment experience, path models which assume a causal order among the independent variables were calculated. To permit the widest range of interactions between the independent variables, the models were estimated separately for the Australian-born and migrants from non-English-speaking countries. In each case, the full equations given in Eq [1] and Eq [2] above were estimated, but only those effects which were statistically significant at p = .01 or better are shown. The figures not in parentheses are partial regression coefficients (bs), while the figures shown in parentheses are standardised regression coefficients (betas). Because of the difficulties in interpreting the curvilinear terms, these are not shown, and their contribution is shown in the graphs below; the full equations are shown in Appendix Table B.

Among the Australian-born, the predominant influence on unemployment experience is labour force participation: each additional year of labour force

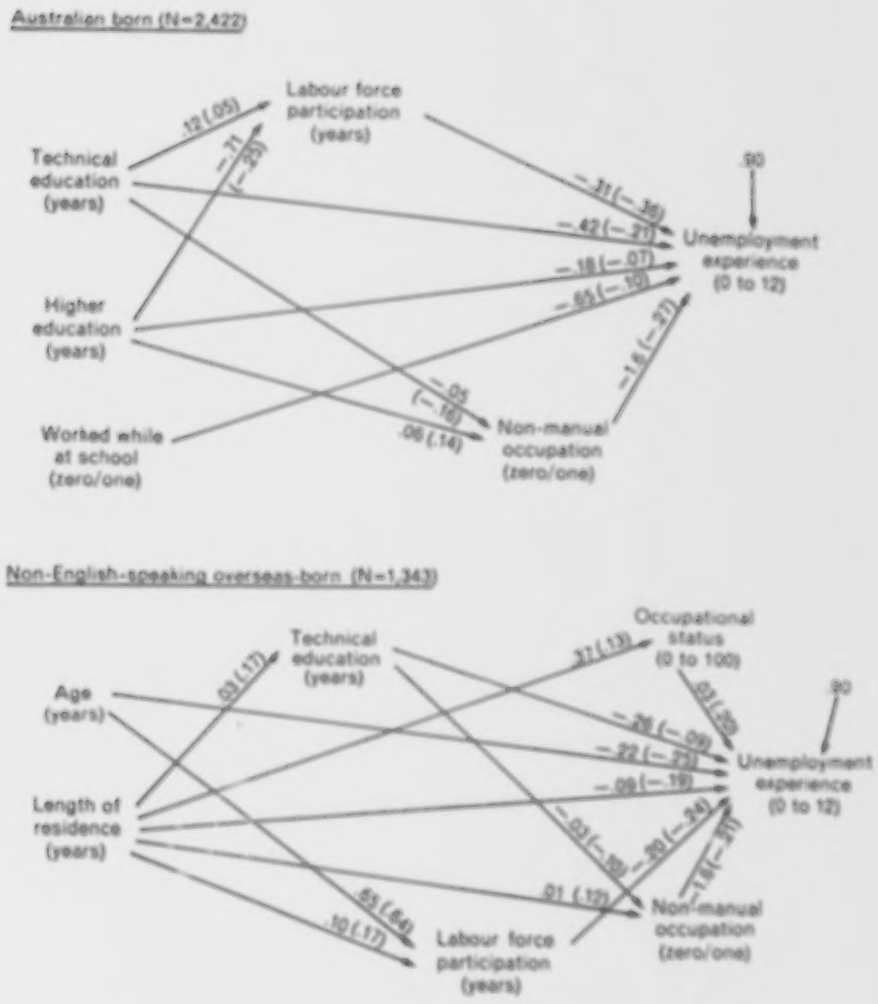

Figure 2.1: Factors affecting unemployment experience among Australian-born and among males and females born in non-English-speaking countries, aged 16 to 30, with labour force experience. Figures are partial regression coefficients and (in parentheses) standardised regression coefficients. All paths are significant at $p < .01$.

participation reduces unemployment experience by nearly one-third of a month's unemployment per year. For example, comparing two people exactly the same in all respects, except that one has 10 years of labour force participation and the other none, suggests that the person without labour force experience could expect to have just over 3 months of unemployment per year more than the person with 10 years experience. In addition, working in a non-manual occupation also reduces unemployment, on average by about 6 weeks per year.

Educational attainment reduces unemployment in two ways. While primary and secondary education has no significant impact, every year of technical education (such as a full-time apprenticeship) will reduce unemployment by nearly 2 weeks per year. Thus, vocational training in readily marketable skills significantly reduces a person's likelihood of avoiding unemployment. Higher education produces a similar, but less important, effect. A three-year degree course would reduce unemployment by about 2 weeks per year. The lesser impact of higher education probably reflects its weaker vocational emphasis, compared to technical education which directly trains an individual for a specific job. One further educational factor is worthy of note for the Australian-born. The experience of working while at school significantly reduces unemployment by between 2 and 3 weeks per year. This factor probably reflects two aspects of the training process. Firstly, persons who have worked while at school will have gained experience about the world of work which will make them more attractive propositions to prospective employers. Secondly, working while at school will have brought persons into contact with potential employers, a useful network when they leave school and seek permanent work.

Three of these factors are also found among the overseas-born. More years of labour force participation again reduces unemployment, but not as much as among the Australian-born (a partial regression coefficient of -.20 as against -.31). Technical education is also important, but again not as significantly, and working in a non-manual occupation has the same impact. However, among the overseas-born, the predominant influence is age: each additional year reduces unemployment by about 1 week per year so that, comparing two people, one aged 20 and the other 30, we would expect the younger to have over 2 months of unemployment per year more than the older person, other things being equal. Length of residence in Australia, as we might expect, also reduces unemployment. Although working in a non-manual occupation reduces unemployment, having a more prestigious job increases it. This apparent anomaly is explained by the two aspects of the work situation these variables measure. While the non-manual/manual dichotomy reflects job tenure (those in non-manual jobs having more security of tenure than manual workers), status reflects specialisation in a limited range of occupations. Also, because well-qualified people from overseas may have difficulty in having their academic or professional qualifications recognised, their risk of being unemployed is increased.

In order to assess the relative importance of the curvilinear terms, graphs were drawn to show the effect of a particular variable, plus its quadratic, against unemployment experience.[6] Figure 2.1 has already shown the importance for both groups of labour force experience. This relationship is refined in Figure 2.2. Through the whole range of labour force experience, extending to 44 years, the Australian-born are likely to suffer less unemployment experience than the overseas-born. However, the curve shows that the gap is least among those with little or no labour force experience - for those with 2 or 3 years, the amount of unemployment experience that can be expected is, met of everything else, much the same. The graph shows that it is between about 5 and 10 years that the major disparity occurs. Here, the overseas-born can expect to have anything up to 3 weeks more unemployment experience than their Australian-born counterparts.

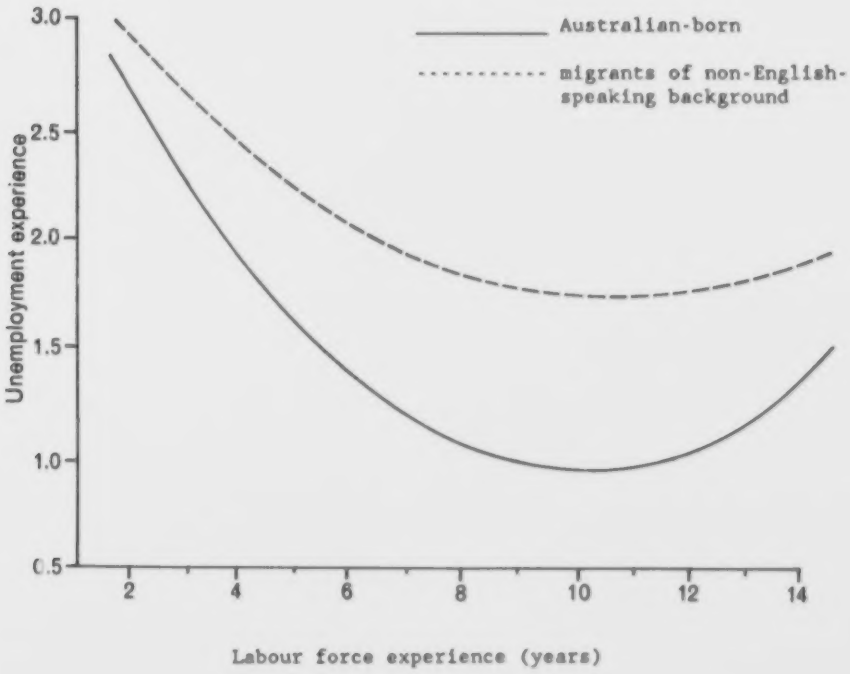

Figure 2.2: The effect of labour force experience on unemployment experience (see text for details of estimation)

There is an even more divergent pattern across the age range. While the overseas-born suffer severe levels of unemployment among teenagers (around 4 months per year for someone aged 17 or 18) the level for the Australian-born is negligible. The curves show that the disparity between the two groups has largely disappeared by age 25 (Figure 2.3). In fact, rather than decreasing, unemployment among the Australian-born increases slightly in the mid 20s, decreasing again among those in their late 20s. Part of this pattern may reflect the generally later age at which the Australian-born enter the labour market, and the higher labour force participation (relative to their age) of the overseas-born. Nevertheless, even taking this possibility into account, the employment disadvantage suffered by teenagers born outside Australia, when compared to that of Australian-born teenagers, is striking.

The path models indicate that occupational status had no significant effect on unemployment for the Australian-born, but had a substantial impact for the overseas-born. This is reflected in Figure 2.4, which shows how the disadvantage increases over the status range for the overseas-born. At the lower status levels, for those scoring around 10 (such as a labourer or bartender) there is no difference between the two groups: each suffer equally. However, the overseas-born disadvantage increases across the status range. For those scoring 60 or 70 on the scale (such as an accountant or a librarian) the disadvantage represents an extra 6 weeks of unemployment per year, other things being equal - a real and significant disadvantage.

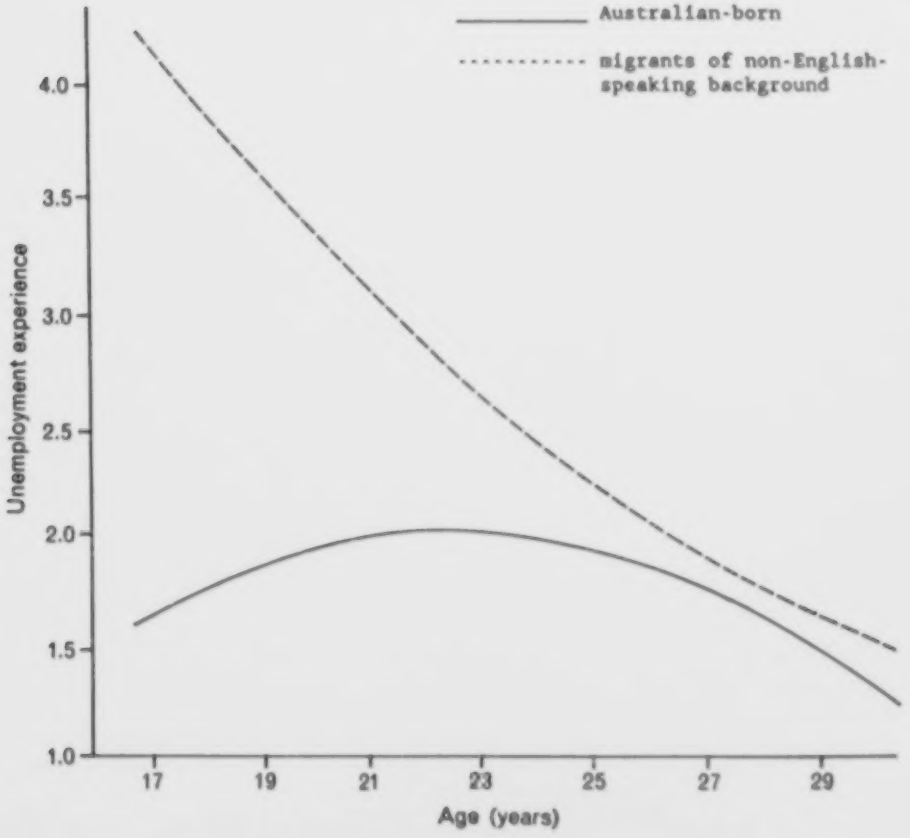

Figure 2.3: The effect of age on unemployment experience (see text for details of estimation)

Finally, Figure 2.5 shows the effect on unemployment experience of two specifically migrant characteristics: length of residence and English language proficiency. Residence within Australia acts as a particular disadvantage for those who have been in the country around 8 or fewer years. Among this group, unemployment ranges between 3.5 months per year for the most recent arrivals, to about 2.5 months per year for those with 7 or 8 years residence; thereafter, unemployment levels to the mean for the Australian-born - 1.9 months per year. By contrast, English language proficiency has little or no effect on unemployment. Those with poor English (at about 3 on the zero to 10 scale) are likely to suffer the same level of unemployment as those with good English (about 7 on the scale). Only for those with excellent English (scoring near the top of the scale) is there any diminution in the expected level of unemployment experience.[7]

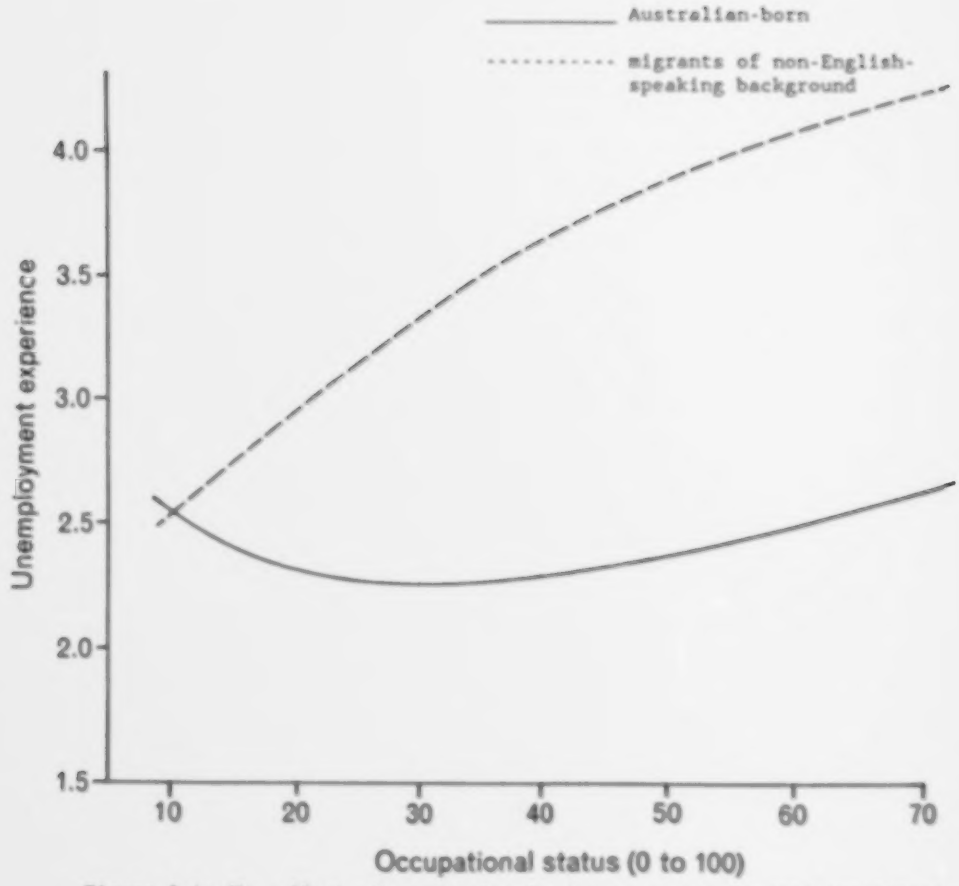

Figure 2.4: The effect of occupational status on unemployment experience (see text for details of estimation)

Explaining birthplace variations in unemployment experience

So far, the analysis has highlighted various differences between the Australian-born and migrants of non-English-speaking background in their propensity to suffer unemployment, and in the factors which serve to contribute towards unemployment. It remains to make two estimates. Firstly, it is important to see to what extent there are significant birthplace variations in unemployment experience, both between the Australian-born and the overseas-born, and among the overseas-born birthplace groups. Secondly, an estimate can be made of the degree to which differences in unemployment experience can be attributed to social structural factors, and the degree to which they can be attributed to characteristics more closely associated with birthplace.

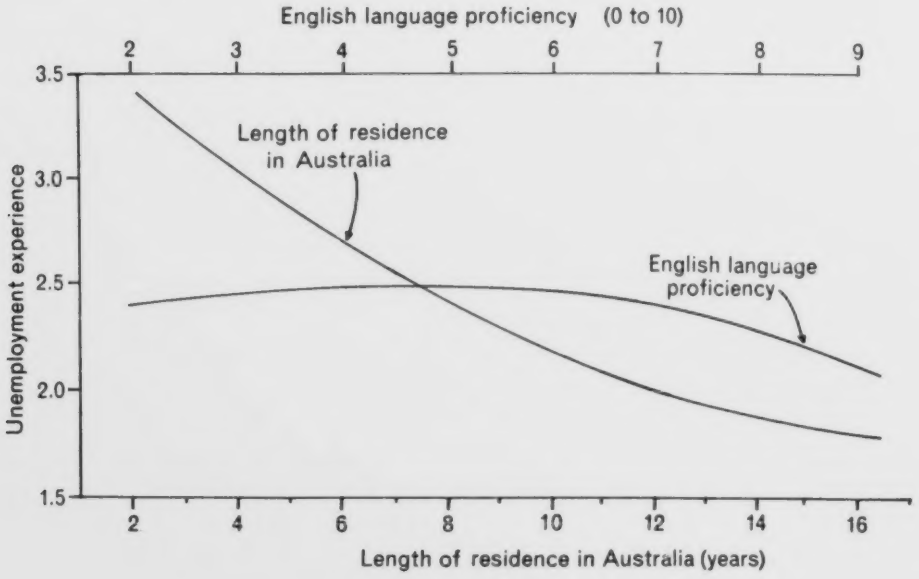

Figure 2.5: The effect of length of residence in Australia and English language proficiency on unemployment experience, for migrants of non-English-speaking background only (see text for details of estimation)

Given the effect of influences such as age, technical education, labour force participation and length of residence on unemployment experience, we would expect that birthplace groups having high concentrations of persons who are young, without skills or labour market experience, or with relatively short periods of residence in Australia, would suffer high levels of unemployment. Removing the differential impact of these influences should produce the net effect of belonging to a particular birthplace group. It should, however, be emphasised that this cannot be adduced as evidence of discrimination *per se*, since it merely suggests a difference that cannot be explained by any of the variables in the model.

Table 2.4 disaggregates the birthplace variations in unemployment experience, in so far as they can be explained, into component parts. This is estimated by regressing the birthplace categories on unemployment experience: the categories are treated as dummy variables, and one is omitted. A series of controls are then entered into the equation, and the resulting changes in the value of the partial regression coefficients show the effect of these controls (Alwin and Hauser 1975). Line 1 shows the actual levels of unemployment experience, measured by months of unemployment per labour force year, without any controls. Three groups are significantly different from the Australian-born: the Italian-born, at just over 1 month of unemployment per year, are considerably lower than the Australian-born, while the Vietnamese-born, at

Table 2.4: Disaggregating the unemployment experience gap *

	Birthplace groups					
	Aust. (1)	Italian (2)	Greek (3)	Yugoslav (4)	Arabic-speaking (5)	Vietnam (6)
1. Actual unemployment experience	1.86	1.14**	1.97	2.09	2.27*	3.75**
2. Controlling for age, gender, length of residence		1.38*	2.09	2.03	2.21*	3.23**
3. Controlling for (2), plus education		1.30*	1.92	1.87	1.83	2.85*
4. Controlling for (3), plus English language proficiency		1.32*	1.96	1.93	1.86	2.89*
5. Controlling for (4), plus labour force participation, occupation		1.16**	1.70	1.62	1.69	2.51*

Source: 1983 General Survey
* Significantly different from the Australian born at $p < .05$ (*), $p < .01$ (**)

Estimated from a pooled regression analysis of all birthplace groups, using the Australian-born as the excluded category, and progressively adding in a series of control variables. See Alwin and Hauser (1975) for details of the method used.

nearly 4 months per year, are very substantially higher; persons born in Arabic-speaking countries experience an average of about 9 weeks unemployment per year. The unemployment experience of the Greek-born and Yugoslav-born is not significantly different from that of the Australian-born.

Controlling for differences in age, gender and length of residence between the groups (Line 2 of Table 2.4) changes this pattern somewhat. Unemployment for the Arabic-speaking group drops marginally; drops by almost 2 weeks per year for the Vietnamese-born group; and rises closer to the Australian-born mean for the Italian-born. For the Vietnamese-born adding further controls reduces their level of unemployment to about 10 weeks per year - still significantly different from that of the Australian-born (just over 7 weeks per year). However, the results show that more than half of the difference between the Vietnamese-born and the Australian-born can be explained by the factors included in the model, in particular, by length of residence and English language proficiency. Adding further controls removes the difference for the Arabic-speaking group and, indeed, by line 5 of Table 2.4, their predicted level of unemployment experience is actually slightly less than for the Australian-born.

Overall, then, there remain birthplace differences between the Australian-born on the one hand, and the Italian- and Vietnamese-born on the other, even after a wide range of controls have been added, but this does not apply for the Greek- and Yugoslav-born, and the Arabic-speaking groups. The fact that the Italian-born retain a lower level of unemployment experience than the

Australian-born, whether controls are added or not, suggests something distinctive about the labour markets that young Italian migrants enter when they leave school. It may be, for example, that the extended family structure of the Italian community, and their occupational structure, with a high proportion of small businesses, reduces unemployment among the young by employing them temporarily in family concerns before alternative employment can be found. The Vietnamese-born disadvantage is less difficult to explain; as the most recently arrived immigrant group, they lack the structural support from their own community which comes with extended residence in Australia. While the unexplained gap may be evidence of overt discrimination against them, it is equally likely to be the problems of settlement they experience in Australian society, which are largely unmeasured in the model used here.

Conclusion

The increased levels of unemployment in the 1970s and 1980s have added a greater saliency to studies of unemployment, particularly those which focus on youth unemployment. In particular, isolating the factors which place one individual rather than another at greater risk of experiencing unemployment is important in enabling policy makers to construct programs to remedy these deficiencies. This paper has used unique occupational history data collected in Australia in 1983 to examine the factors most closely associated with unemployment differences among a number of birthplace groups resident in Australia.

The central argument has been that unemployment cannot be measured by a traditional 'point-in-time' variable, as this confuses several different types of unemployment. Similarly, duration of unemployment fails to take into account length of time spent in the labour force. Only when unemployment is measured by duration weighted for time in the labour force can any empirical leverage be gained in identifying those most at risk of unemployment. The analysis has therefore focused on examining unemployment experience over a working career: the problems of reconstructing occupational histories are in part mitigated here by the fact that the sample is of 16 to 30-year-olds, and the mean period in the labour force is only five years.

Three major conclusions are reached in the analysis. Firstly, a range of individual factors are associated with a greater risk of experiencing unemployment for both the Australian- and overseas-born: in particular, lack of labour force participation little or no technical education, and working in a manual occupation (and therefore having less job tenure) all serve to increase the risk significantly Secondly, three additional factors affect the overseas-born. As we might expect, a relatively short period of residence in the country constitutes a significant disadvantage, as does a higher occupational status among migrants who, as a consequence, may experience difficulty in having overseas qualifications recognised. One particularly significant factor is age: as all the literature has shown, it is the young who suffer unemployment disproportionately in relation to other groups. However, the results suggest that it is the overseas-born, rather than the Australian-born who suffer from this disadvantage. Thirdly, statistically adjusting for these variations accounts for much of the difference between the overseas-born birthplace groups and the Australian-born, but, nevertheless, there remains a significantly lower level of unemployment among the Italian-born, and a significantly higher level among the Vietnamese-born.

From a policy perspective, the findings imply that ensuring experience in the labour market through job creation programs and permitting increased access to technical education will benefit both Australian-born and migrant youth.

Programs which are not based on direct work experience or oriented towards achieving marketable technical skills will have neglible effects in reducing unemployment. The fact that age is unimportant for the Australian-born only underlines the centrality of labour force experience, since the high unemployment figures for Australian-born youth do not reflect the consequences of age per se, but rather the consequences of lack of job experience. The distinctive problems associated with migrant youth make them less amenable to government policy. There is little that can be done to remedy the disadvantages of youth itself or of a short period of residence in the country. However, the findings do imply that migrants, particularly those from non-English-speaking countries, should have accelerated access to work experience programs and courses designed to give them more marketable skills. Only then will they be able to compete on the labour market on equal terms.

Footnotes

1. For example, during the 1983 British general election campaign, 72% of voters mentioned unemployment as the most important problem facing the country, compared to 27% in 1979 (McAllister and Rose 1984: 34). In Australia, 53% mentioned unemployment as the most important problem facing the Commonwealth Government in 1979, compared to only 2% in 1967 (estimated from the 1967 and 1979 Australian National Political Attitudes Surveys).

2. For those respondents who had been unemployed since leaving school, a regression estimate of their likely occupation was made. This was made by first predicting occupational status among those currently employed, and then applying the equation to those who had been unemployed since school.

3. The One Percent Sample of the Australian Census is a public use sample of the individual records from the 1981 Census. The sample contains a total of 144,365 respondents (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1983).

4. The English language proficiency measures differ between the surveys. The 1981 Census measures English by self-rated speaking ability; the 1983 General Survey uses a composite of self-rated ability in speaking, reading, writing and understanding English.

5. Occupational status was recorded from the Australian Census' detailed occupational classification into the ANU II status scale. The ANU II scale provides a continuous measure of occupational status in Australia and was developed using canonical correlation procedures (Broom et al. 1977, 1980).

6. The graphs were estimated from the regression equations in Appendix Table B, evaluated at the mean.

7. English language proficiency was of course measured at the time the survey was carried out, while unemployment experience is a longitudinal measure, and this necessarily introduces some error into the estimates.

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Appendix Table A: Variables, scoring, and means[a]

Definition	Scoring	Means: Aust-born	Means: NESB migrants
Unemployment			
Unemployment experience	Months of unemployment per labour force year, from a low of 0 to a high of 12	1.9	2.4
Ascribed characteristics			
Age	Years	23.8	25.1
Age squared	Years minus mean of age, squared	15.3	19.3
Gender	Male=1, female=0	.49	.52
Length of residence	Years	na	11.4
Length of residence squared	Years minus mean of residence, squared	na	47.9
Education[b]			
Primary, secondary education	Years	11.1	11.3
Technical education	Years	.78	.48
Higher education	Years	.42	.21
Worked while at school	Yes=1, no=0	.35	.13
English language proficiency			
English language	Self-assessed ability in reading, writing, speaking, understanding English, from a low of 0 to a high of 10	na	5.7
English language squared	English minus mean of English, squared	na	8.3
Labour force experience and occupation[c]			
Labour force experience	Years	5.2	5.5
Labour force experience squared	Years minus mean of labour force experience, squared		
Occupational status	ANU II scale, from a low of 0 to a high of 100	31.2	19.0
Occupational status squared	Status minus mean of status, squared	560.3	384.2
Non-manual occupation	Non-manual=1, manual=0	.54	.25

Source: 1983 General Survey

a means are for those with labour force experience only

b defined as full-time apprentice or trade training, nursing, and technical college education

c The ANU II scale runs from 331 to 915; it was converted to a 0 to 100 scale by the formula: (Status-331)/5.61. To cope with outliers, those greater than 90 on the new scale were recorded to 100.

na not available

Appendix Table B: Full regression results

	Unemployment experience			
	Aust-born		NESB migrants	
	b	beta	b	beta
Age	-.01	-.02	-.22**	-.25**
Age squared	-.01*	-.07*	.01	.04
Gender	-.47	-.08	-.46*	-.07*
Length of residence	-- na	--	-.09**	-.19**
Length of residence squared	-- na	--	.01**	.12**
Education (primary, secondary)	-.01	-.01	.06	.03
Technical education	-.42**	-.21**	-.26**	-.09**
Higher education	-.18**	-.07	-.01	-.00
Worked while at school	-.65**	-.10**	-.64*	-.07*
Labour force participation	-.31**	-.36**	-.20**	-.24**
Labour force participation squared	.03**	.20**	.01	.13*
Occupational status	-.01	-.01	03**	.20**
Occupational status squared	.0002*	.07	-.0002	-.05
Non-manual occupation	-1.63	-.27**	-.1.63**	-.21**
English proficiency	-- na	--	-.02	-.01
English proficiency squared	-- na	--	-.01	-.04
Constant	5.51		8.99	
R-squared	.19		.19	

Source: 1983 General Survey

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
na = not available

CAREERS EDUCATION: CINDERELLA OF SCHOOLING*

Diana F Davis

This study of careers education and counselling has as its major focus the evaluation of the availability and adequacy of these services for migrant and refugee youth. Specifically, the aims are to:

assess the availability to and suitability of careers education for migrant and refugee youth, with particular emphasis on difficulties faced by recent arrivals and those with a non-English-speaking background

ascertain any special needs that migrant and refugee youth have with respect to careers education and examine the interface between these needs and

- the extent to which migrant/refugee youth utilise careers education (eg. the work experience program)
- the nature of any factors limiting the utilisation of careers education facilities
- unmet needs (eg. for vocational information in community languages)

examine how specific migrant/refugee needs might be met by the provision of improved careers education, and make suggestions about more appropriate content/activities.

Methodology

This study was designed to have two complementary data collection phases. The first (Phase 1) was a major questionnaire study of a large sample of secondary schools across Australia, and the second (Phase 2) an intensive but very limited interview survey of a few schools identified in Phase 1 as having a large population of migrant and/or refugee children. This report details the major data from the Phase 1 study and uses the Phase 2 data only indirectly to refute or substantiate conclusions derived from the major questionnaire data base.

In deriving the sample, an alphabetical listing of all secondary schools in Australia, as at the end of 1982, was prepared from a variety of sources, including lists prepared by state education authorities/departments, state careers education officers, organisations of independent schools. The distribution of these schools by state and type is shown in Table 3.1.

* The author wishes to acknowledge the contribution and assistance of the following groups and individuals: the Principals and careers teachers of the participating secondary schools who gave so freely of their time during the questionnaire and interview phases of the study; the various State Departments of Education; the various Language Centres in Sydney and Melbourne; Mrs J Brown for her assistance with interviewing; Dr B J Spicer for his advice and expertise at all stages of the research; Mrs K Keogh for her research assistance; Mrs E Forscutt for her loyalty, enthusiasm and energy when the burdens of research analysis and report preparation were at their heaviest.

Table 3.1: Australian secondary schools 1982*

	ACT	NSW	NT	QLD	SA	TAS	VIC	WA	All states/ territories
Government	25	437	37	233	167	67	415	171	1,552
Non-government	11	253	8	132	57	30	212	83	786
Total	36	690	45	365	224	97	627	254	2,338

Source: Commonwealth Schools Commission, January 1984

* The total includes 788 schools with both primary and secondary classes.

Initially, some schools were excluded from the sampling procedures because they were known to cater for only one or two secondary year levels, with their students moving to neighbouring schools to complete their education, while other schools were known to have closed in the intervening two years. Ultimately, the list contained some 2046 schools known to be secondary schools only and/or to have a substantial secondary section, with most catering for students at least until the normal compulsory leaving age. From this list a table of random numbers was used to derive a sample of one in five (20%) secondary schools which were then invited to participate in the study. The distribution of the sample is contained in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Initial sample of Australian secondary schools invited to participate in study

	ACT	NSW	NT	QLD	SA	TAS	VIC	WA	All states/ territories
Government	8	64	3	42	34	8	95	29	283
Non-government	2	42	1	28	9	-	37	6	125
Total	10	106	4	70	43	8	132	35	408
% of all secondary schools in state	27.8	15.4	8.9	19.2	19.2	8.2	21.1	13.8	17.5

Overall, 260 of these schools (63.6%) agreed to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire, while 57.3% of schools also indicated their willingness to participate in the interviews.

The Phase 1 questionnaire was posted in May, with a response deadline of 1 July. A follow-up letter was sent in August to schools from which no questionnaire had been returned.

Table 3.3 shows the distribution of the 'agreed' participant sample by state and school type and the final response rate for that sample.

Table 3.3: Structure of agreed participant sample

	ACT	NSW	NT	QLD	SA	TAS	VIC	WA	All states/ territories
Government									
Sample (N)	8	40	3	26	19	3	67	18	184
Response (N)	8	35	2	18	12	3	50	14	142
Response %	100	87.5	66.7	69.2	63.2	100	74.6	77.8	77.2
Non-government									
Sample (N)	-	25	1	14	5	-	25	6	76
Response (N)	-	10	1	9	3	-	22	5	50
Response %	-	40.0	100	64.3	60.0	-	88.0	83.3	65.8
Total									
Sample (N)	8	65	4	40	24	3	92	24	260
Response (N)	8	45	3	27	15	3	72	19	192
Response %	100	69.2	75.0	67.5	62.5	100	78.3	79.2	73.9

The final returns provided data on 192 schools or 8.3% of all Australian secondary schools, and 9.4% of those schools identified for the purpose of the study as having a substantial secondary component. Twelve questionnaires were returned too late to be included in the figures, although a check revealed that these additional profiles were consistent with the sample upon which this report is based. The returns thus covered some 9.1% of all government secondary schools and 6.4% of all non-government schools involved, either fully or partially, in secondary education. It therefore represents a substantial study group, both absolutely and relatively, and one from which it should be possible to draw general conclusions with a considerable degree of confidence. The somewhat lower response rate from non-government schools is probably explained by the emphasis on migrant and refugee youth in the covering letter and questionnaire. A number of private schools indicated by phone and/or letter that they were of the opinion that their schools would provide little relevant data. In fact, the intention always had been to examine the careers education provisions for, and careers education needs of, migrant and refugee youth within the broad and general context of Australian education. Thus, those private schools that did not participate because of the state emphasis of the study did create some distortion of that broad context. Such distortion is, however, most likely to have been of minor significance and, if anything, would have reinforced the picture gained rather than changed the view. The response patterns derived from the questionnaire certainly relate to the whole of the Australian educational scene in so far as careers education and counselling provisions are concerned.

Status of respondents completing the questionnaire

The majority of those completing the questionnaire were senior careers teachers, who accounted for 73.4% of respondents. Questionnaires were completed by school principals in 11.5% of cases, by another staff member in 8.3% of cases, and by another careers teacher in 6.8% of instances.

The three most common reasons for the questionnaire being completed by an individual other than the senior careers teacher were:

. there were no formally designated careers teachers at the school

. the careers teacher was ill or on leave

. the careers teacher was too committed to other tasks.

Enrolment patterns of respondent schools

Of respondent schools, 80% offered a program of secondary education to Year 12. Another 15% operated to Year 10 after which students transferred to a senior college. Slightly more than 4% went to Year 11, while one school went only to Year 8.

The school populations varied in size from 39 students in one case, to some of around 1300. Schools in the main did not seem readily able to provide data about the ethnic background of their student populations. The number of 'guesstimates' received suggests that such data are not an integral feature of the record-keeping of a great many schools in Australia.

The schools with the highest concentrations of students of non-English-speaking background were in the larger states (New South Wales and Victoria). The Victorian sample yielded eight schools with enrolments of 75% or more students of non-English-speaking background. The New South Wales sample was broadly similar.

Profile of careers teachers and/or counsellors

Returns from the 192 participant schools provided general staffing data from which it appeared that in government schools across Australia there was approximately one specially designated careers teacher per school. Approximately 70% of schools had a full-time careers teacher, and about 40% had a part-time careers teacher and/or counsellor. Of the larger states, it seems that only Queensland and Western Australia had a lower ratio; in Queensland, there was a tendency for virtually all schools to have at least one other staff member involved in careers education and counselling as an extra duty. Across Australia, approximately 60% of schools allocated careers education to staff as an additional responsibility. This tendency was least in New South Wales and Victoria, where the level of specific careers staffing was higher. The overall pattern is revealed clearly in Table 3.4.

In non-government schools, the allocation of careers education to staff as an additional responsibility was a more common means of providing for careers education than in government schools. Approximately 60% of schools followed this pattern. In non-government schools, the total provision of staff for careers education and counselling was somewhat less (1.2 compared to 1.7 staff per school) than in government schools.

Table 3.4: Overview of careers teacher provision in Australian schools

	Specific careers teachers (per school)			Careers as extra duty (per school)	All teachers with careers responsibility (per school)	Sex of specific teachers (%)	
	Full-time	Part-time	Total	Full- and part-time		Male	Female
ACT Government	0.4	0.8	1.1	0.6	1.7	40.0	60.0
Non-government	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
NSW Government	1.1	0.3	1.4	0.1	1.5	70.0	30.0
Non-government	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.9	1.5	69.0	31.0
NT Government	-	2.0	2.0	2.0	4.0	33.3	66.7
Non-government	-	2.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	33.3	66.7
QLD Government	0.4	0.2	0.6	1.4	2.0	60.0	40.0
Non-government	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.8	1.1	60.0	40.0
SA Government	0.7	0.4	1.1	1.0	2.1	68.8	31.2
Non-government	-	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.0	66.7	33.3
TAS Government	-	0.7	0.7	1.3	2.0	40.0	60.0
Non-government	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
VIC Government	0.7	0.3	1.0	0.2	1.2	65.5	34.5
Non-government	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.2	1.1	56.5	43.5
WA Government	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.6	1.2	47.6	52.4
Non-government	-	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.2	50.0	50.0
All states							
Government	0.7	0.4	1.1	0.6	1.7	62.8	37.2
Non-government	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	1.2	61.8	38.2

Of the specifically designated careers teachers, whether full or part-time, men outnumbered women by almost 2 to 1 in both government and non-government schools. This pattern was particularly strong in the larger states - New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia and Victoria - and less evident elsewhere.

Age

The age distribution of the sample of careers education and counselling staff, full- and part-time, male and female, is shown for the total sample in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Age distribution of careers education teachers/counsellors

		Government	Non-government	Total
		%	%	%
Male	21 - 30	24.5	17.2	23.0
	31 - 40	43.6	41.4	43.2
	41 - 50	27.3	37.9	29.5
	51+	4.5	3.4	4.3
Female	21 - 30	33.8	16.7	29.6
	31 - 40	32.4	54.2	37.8
	41 - 50	23.0	20.8	22.4
	51+	10.8	8.3	10.2

The pattern illustrated in Table 3.5 is not significantly different when examined on a state by state basis. The most obvious general differences were:

- the tendency for relatively younger female careers teachers/counsellors in government schools than was the case for males in government schools, or for males and females in non-government schools
- the tendency for fewer men and women in the 21 to 30 age group to be involved in careers education in private schools and
- the tendency for a relatively larger proportion of female careers teachers to be over 50 years of age. The overall pattern, however, was for careers education to be the responsibility of middle-aged teachers whether male or female.

Country of birth

Table 3.6 summarises the country of birth of the sample of careers teachers by state, school system and for Australia as a whole.

The clear, indeed overwhelming, dominance of Australian-born careers teachers and counsellors is the most striking feature of the pattern. There were very few teachers in this sample who were born in non-English-speaking countries. The Anglo tradition which this table reflects is further emphasised by the fact that only 10 (or 4.2%) of this sample of careers teachers and counsellors had a first language other than English, and of this small group only two had a first

Table 3.6: Country of birth of respondents (%)

	Australia	Other English-speaking countries	Non-English-speaking countries			
			Europe	Asia	Africa	Americas
ACT Government	81.8	9.1	9.1	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	92.5	7.5	-	-	-	-
Non-government	80.0	10.0	-	10.0	-	-
NT Government	83.3	16.7	-	-	-	-
Non-government	100.0	-	-	-	-	-
QLD Government	84.4	12.0	4.0	-	-	-
Non-government	66.7	22.2	-	-	11.1	-
SA Government	88.2	11.8	-	-	-	-
Non-government	100.0	-	-	-	-	-
TAS Government	60.0	20.0	20.0	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	83.9	8.9	7.2	-	-	-
Non-government	68.2	18.2	13.6	-	-	-
WA Government	83.3	16.7	-	-	-	-
Non-government	100.0	-	-	-	-	-
All states						
Government	85.3	10.9	3.8	-	-	-
Non-government	76.9	13.5	5.8	1.9	1.9	-
Total	83.5	11.4	4.2	0.4	0.4	0.0

language which was not European. Indeed, as Table 3.7 shows, only 23.7% of the total sample claimed to have speaking facility in a language other than English and only (15.3%) claimed speaking facility in a specific community language.

Table 3.7: Languages other than English in which respondents have speaking facility

	Traditional European languages*	Community languages		
		European	Asian	Other
ACT Government	-	27.3	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	2.5	5.0	2.5	-
Non-government	10.0	-	-	10.0
NT Government	33.3	-	16.7	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
QLD Government	4.0	12.0	-	4.0
Non-government	-	11.1	-	22.0
SA Government	11.8	11.8	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
TAS Government	-	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	7.1	17.9	-	1.8
Non-government	18.2	18.2	-	-
WA Government	16.7	12.5	-	-
Non-government	20.0	20.0	-	-
All states				
Government	7.6	12.5	1.1	1.1
Non-government	11.5	11.5	-	5.8
Total	8.5	12.3	0.8	2.1

* i.e. traditional academic languages (eg. Latin, Ancient Greek, French) using distinction cited in Davis, Diana F. (1982) Galbally recommendation 14: evaluation study, AGPS, Canberra, p.86.

The latter figure of 15.3% is probably the crucial one as regards the ability of the school system to meet the needs of migrant and refugee youth, and even this figure may be exaggerated by the fact that some respondents reported a facility in more than one such language. Furthermore, it is significant that, of the people claiming speaking facility in a European community language, more than 40% (10 of 23) were Victorian teachers. While some of the other percentages may seem relatively high (eg. 22.2% and 16.7%) it is also important to remember that these percentages represent at most two individual teachers. The data obtained on writing facility is a virtual mirror of that for speaking facility, although the picture is slightly worse. Overall, only 12.7% of the

sample of teachers claimed the ability to write in a community language and, for the great majority of these, this was a European language. Only two teachers were able to speak and write in an Asian language.

Unfortunately, as the data in Table 3.8 indicate, this lack of language skills also reflects a lack of real familiarity with non-Anglo cultures. This is a clear danger sign in a multicultural society which is endeavouring to ensure that migrant and refugee youth are not disadvantaged in terms of careers education and counselling.

Table 3.8: Non-Anglo cultures with which respondents were highly familiar

	Northern European	Southern European	Middle Eastern	Asian/ Eastern	Pacific Islands	South American
ACT Government	27.3	-	-	-	9.1	9.1
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	5.0	2.5	-	10.0	-	2.5
Non-government	10.0	-	-	10.0	-	-
NT Government	-	-	-	16.7	16.7	16.7
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
QLD Government	12.0	12.0	-	12.0	8.0	-
Non-government	11.1	22.2	11.1	11.1	11.1	-
SA Government	11.8	11.7	-	5.9	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
TAS Government	-	-	-	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	9.0	5.4	3.6	5.4	-	-
Non-government	36.4	13.6	9.1	9.1		-
WA Government	-	4.2	-	4.2	12.5	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
All states						
Government	8.2	5.4	1.1	7.1	3.8	1.6
Non-government	19.2	9.6	5.8	7.7	1.9	
Total	10.6	6.4	2.1	7.2	3.4	1.3

Professional profile of careers/counselling staff

Table 3.9 provides a summary of the main focus of the respondent sample's professional training. It reveals that approximately three in four trained for general teaching and only 16.4% trained in those areas central to careers education and counselling.

Further analysis of the questionnaire returns also revealed that, while the great majority of respondents (76.0% from government schools and 78.8% from

Table 3.9: Main focus of respondents' professional training (% of respondents)

	Careers teaching and counselling	General teaching	Personnel/ vocational work	Social work	Other
ACT Government	-	80.0	-	-	20.0
Non-government	-	--	-	-	-
NSW Government	15.0	75.0	-	-	10.0
Non-government	10.0	80.0	-	-	10.0
NT Government	-	50.0	-	-	50.0
Non-government	-	66.7	-	-	33.3
QLD Government	40.0	52.0	-	4.0	4.0
Non-government	-	77.8	-	-	22.2
SA Government	11.8	76.4	11.8	-	-
Non-government	-	33.3	33.3	-	33.3
TAS Government	-	80.0	-	-	20.0
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	1.8	82.1	-	3.6	12.5
Non-government	13.6	54.5	9.1	9.1	13.6
WA Government	-	62.5	12.5	4.2	20.8
Non-government	-	80.0	20.0	-	-
All states					
Government	10.3	76.1	3.3	2.2	8.2
Non-government	7.7	63.5	7.7	3.9	17.3
Total	9.7	73.3	4.2	2.5	10.2

non-government schools) have either a University or College degree, and virtually all have a teaching qualification, only 4.7% (11 in total) have a formal and specific qualification in counselling and/or psychology. The situation is clearly one in which the great majority of teachers now responsible for careers education and counselling in schools have moved into the area from other fields of initial educational concern and training. In fact, as Table 3.10 shows, there has been a very heavy reliance on in-service education to provide the necessary expertise for the teacher undertaking the role of careers adviser and counsellor.

Slightly more than one in two careers teachers/counsellors had gained their formal expertise in the field via basic in-service courses, with 12.3% having completed one or two years of study in the specific area of careers education. Some 20.3% studied psychology for one or two years, and it is clear that this was the key formal and external qualification for those undertaking the role of careers teacher or counsellor. Of the respondent sample, nearly 18% completed an advanced in-service program relevant to their work.

Table 3.10: Respondents' qualifications specific to careers education, as a percentage

	Two years tertiary study in:			One year tertiary study in:			Basic in-service only	Advanced in-service	Nil
	Careers education*	Psycho-logy	Social work	Careers education*	Psycho-logy	Social work			
ACT Government	-	-	-	-	-	18.2	81.8	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	2.5	17.5	2.5	7.5	12.5	-	57.5	27.5	-
Non-government	10.0	10.0	-	-	-	-	60.0	-	20.0
NT Government	-	16.6	-	-	-	-	66.8	-	16.6
Non-government	-	-	-	-	33.3	-	-	-	66.7
QLD Government	8.0	28.0	4.0	24.0	-	-	12.0	24.0	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.3	-	66.7
SA Government	5.9	5.9	-	17.7	11.8	5.9	35.4	11.8	5.9
Non-government	-	33.3	-	33.3	-	33.3	-	-	-
TAS Government	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	-	12.5	-	10.7	-	-	75.0	10.7	1.8
Non-government	4.5	31.8	4.5	9.0	4.5	-	45.5	13.5	-
WA Government	8.3	25.0	-	-	-	-	54.2	58.3	12.5
Non-government	-	20.0	-	-	-	-	40.0	-	40.0
All states									
Government	3.3	15.8	1.1	9.8	3.8	1.6	57.1	21.2	3.3
Non-government	3.8	19.2	1.9	5.8	3.8	1.9	40.4	5.8	23.1
Total	3.4	16.5	1.3	8.9	3.8	1.7	53.4	17.8	7.6

* including guidance and counselling

Table 3.11: Major areas* of teaching at commencement of career and at present, as a percentage**

Teaching responsibility	At commencement of career		Currently		Current total
	Government	Non-government	Government	Non-government	(%)
English	22.3	17.3	11.4	9.6	11.0
Languages	3.8	5.8	3.3	5.8	3.8
History/geography/social science	48.4	42.3	18.5	15.3	17.8
Trades/technical	25.0	9.6	6.0	3.8	5.5
Commercial/legal	20.1	23.1	12.0	30.8	16.1
Art and craft	6.5	3.8	1.6	1.9	1.7
Counselling/guidance	2.7	3.8	8.7	5.8	8.1
Librarian	0.5	1.9	0.5	3.8	1.3
Maths	15.8	11.6	7.6	13.5	8.9
Science/biology/chemistry	16.8	9.6	6.0	-	4.7
Careers	4.9	5.8	49.4	28.8	44.9

* respondents may have noted more than one area
** % of respondents in all states

Furthermore, as Table 3.11 reveals, the great majority of the sample commenced their teaching careers not as career educators or counsellors, but as general teaching staff, especially in the fields of History/Geography/Social Science, English, Commercial Studies, Mathematics, Biology and Chemistry. For many, these fields are still their main area of concern. Reflecting on the initial concerns of careers teachers/counsellors, it appears that there is no clearly established career path; they have been drawn from an incredibly varied academic/vocational base. This pattern is extremely consistent from state to state and in both the government and non-government systems.

It is also worthy of note, even though somewhat alarming, to find that only 44.9% of the respondents indicated that careers education was their current main area of teaching, and to observe that this situation was more extreme in non-government schools (28%) than in government schools (49.4%).

The overall picture is of a group of teachers lacking strong formal preparation in the areas of careers education and counselling and, in the majority of cases, still seeing themselves primarily as teachers in other areas of the academic curriculum. One means of maintaining expertise in a specific field is to belong to a relevant professional association. Table 3.12 shows the level of membership of such associations for the respondent sample by state.

Table 3.12: Membership of professional association of careers teachers and/or counselling

	Home state	Other state
ACT Government	18.2	9.1
Non-government	-	-
NSW Government	75.0	0.0
Non-government	60.0	0.0
NT Government	83.3	0.0
Non-government	-	-
QLD Government	44.0	0.0
Non-government	55.5	0.0
SA Government	17.7	0.0
Non-government	5.9	0.0
TAS Government	0.0	0.0
Non-government	-	-
VIC Government	78.6	0.0
Non-government	63.6	0.0
WA Government	12.5	4.2
Non-government	60.0	0.0
All states		
Government	53.3	1.6
Non-government	55.8	0.0
Total	53.8	1.3

Slightly more than 50% of the teachers surveyed indicated that they belonged to the professional association in their home state, although this figure was enhanced by the relatively high membership levels in the two largest states - New South Wales and Victoria. Of the teachers who offered reasons for non-membership, more than 56% indicated that they had a major commitment to another teaching area; about 25% indicated that they had no knowledge of such associations; and 19% felt the offerings of their home state association to be inadequate and/or inappropriate.

For those teachers who were members of a professional association the major benefits listed were, in order of importance: general teaching support (44.6%); useful publications (37.3%); in-service activities (36.1%).

Throughout Australia, only four respondents stated that a major factor in their membership was the availability of publications in community languages. Clearly, while offering support in the general careers education and counselling arena, the professional associations are not seen to be of major assistance in specifically catering to migrant and refugee students.

In-service education

The significance of in-service education to the further professional development of careers teachers is revealed to some extent in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Participation in in-service activities in 1983/84

	Number	%
ACT Government	9	81.8
Non-government	-	-
NSW Government	33	82.5
Non-government	8	80.0
NT Government	2	33.3
Non-government	-	-
QLD Government	12	48.0
Non-government	4	44.4
SA Government	15	88.2
Non-government	2	66.7
TAS Government	5	100.0
Non-government	-	-
VIC Government	46	82.1
Non-government	19	86.4
WA Government	17	70.8
Non-government	3	60.0
All states		
Government	136	73.9
Non-government	36	69.2
Total	172	72.9

In most states (except Queensland and the Northern Territory) the great majority of teachers (approximately 73%) engaged in relevant in-service programs during 1983-84. The level of involvement was virtually the same for both government and non-government careers teachers and counsellors. The major emphases for these in-service activities are detailed in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14: Central focus of recent in-service activities*

Focus	%
a. General careers education	20.3
b. Work experience	19.9
c. General counselling, pastoral care, and professional development	17.4
d. Territory orientation	13.1
e. General teaching issues	11.8
f. Curriculum development	4.7
g. Technological, commercial and economic change	3.8

* % of all respondents attending such programs

Those activities indicated by the letters a, b, c, d and g would seem to have the most direct relevance to careers teachers and counsellors and accounted for the in-service activities attended by approximately 75% of the respondent sample.

Training emphasis on migrant and refugee youth

Tables 3.15, 3.16, 3.17 and 3.18 provide an indication of the extent to which, in the perception of careers teachers and counsellors, their initial and subsequent training in the careers field drew attention to the significance of, or placed emphasis upon, the special careers choice/transition problems of migrant and refugee youth. The message of these tables is clear and overwhelming - the vast majority of careers teachers and counsellors received, at best, only a sketchy introduction to the special needs of such students.

For example, Table 3.15 shows that only 6.3% of respondents indicated that their initial training had either extensively or very extensively alerted them to the special career choice/transition needs of migrant and refugee youth, whereas 45.4% indicated that such needs were not mentioned at all, and a further 21.6% noted that these needs were mentioned only in passing. There are only minor differences in the pattern of responses from state to state, or between respondents from the government and non-government schools.

Table 3.16 reinforces the lack of articulated concern for the special needs of migrant and refugee youth within the context of initial training programs. Indeed, only 2.5% of respondents felt that their initial training prepared them

Table 3.15: The extent to which initial training alerted teachers to the special career choice/transition problems of migrant/refugee youth, as a percentage

	Extensively or very extensively	To a moderate extent	Mentioned in passing	Not mentioned
ACT Government	-	9.1	9.1	81.8
Non-government	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	5.0	35.0	27.5	32.5
Non-government	20.0	40.0	10.0	30.0
NT Government	-	16.7	-	83.3
Non-government	-	33.3	-	66.7
QLD Government	4.0	36.0	24.0	36.0
Non-government	-	33.3	22.2	44.4
SA Government	-	17.6	35.3	47.0
Non-government	-	33.3	-	66.7
TAS Government	-	-	40.0	60.0
Non-government	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	8.9	30.3	21.4	39.4
Non-government	4.6	18.1	18.1	59.2
WA Government	4.2	20.8	25.0	50.0
Non-government	40.0	-	20.0	40.0
All states				
Government	4.9	27.0	23.8	44.2
Non-government	11.5	25.0	13.5	50.0
Total	6.3	26.7	21.6	45.4

either extensively or very extensively to meet these needs, while 51.8% indicated that such needs were not mentioned at all. Once again, comparisons between states, and between government and non-government schools do not yield major or meaningful divergences from the general pattern.

Perhaps, as might be expected, a slightly greater percentage of respondents (9.3%) indicated that they perceived in-service courses to have focused either extensively or very extensively on the special career choice/transition problems likely to be faced by migrant and refugee youth (Table 3.17). Yet, 45.9% indicated that in the in-service programs they had attended, such issues received no mention at all, and a further 30.0% indicated that these were mentioned only in passing. Table 3.18, however, shows that only 5.5% of respondents indicated that the in-service programs they had attended prepared them either extensively or very extensively to handle these special needs, while 47.1%, a figure consistent with that of Table 3.17, indicated that in-service programs did not prepare them at all for handling the specific problems of migrant and refugee youth. Only in South Australia do in-service

Table 3.165: Extent to which initial training prepared teachers for the special careers choice/transition problems of migrant/refugee youth, as a percentage

	Extensively or very extensively	To a moderate extent	To a minor extent	Not at all
ACT Government	-	9.1	18.2	72.7
Non-government	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	7.5	22.5	30.0	10.0
Non-government	-	30.0	20.0	50.0
NT Government	-	-	-	100.0
Non-government	-	66.7	-	33.3
QLD Government	4.0	20.0	28.0	48.0
Non-government	-	22.2	-	77.8
SA Government	-	17.6	29.4	62.0
Non-government	-	-	66.7	33.3
TAS Government	-	-	40.0	60.0
Non-government	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	1.8	23.1	32.0	43.1
Non-government	4.6	13.7	13.7	68.0
WA Government	-	16.6	37.4	46.0
Non-government	-	-	40.0	60.0
All states:				
Government	2.7	18.9	29.7	48.7
Non-government	1.9	23.0	13.4	61.7
Total	2.5	19.5	26.2	51.8

program organisers seem to have directed significant attention to these needs. Clearly, those responsible for developing appropriate initial training programs and subsequent in-service activities have not seen a major need for specific and concentrated focus on the special career choice and transition problems of migrant and refugee youth.

In general, the data provide a clear general profile of careers teachers and counsellors in Australian schools. Most schools have at least one and frequently two people involved in these roles, and two in three of such personnel are male, with more than 70% being 30 years or older. There is a clear dominance of people of Anglo background in careers teaching and counselling posts and, while virtually all have a teaching qualification, very few have been trained specifically in psychology or counselling and few have facility of any kind in a language other than English. For the vast majority, their initial and subsequent training has paid little, if any, attention to the needs of migrant and refugee youth.

Table 3.17: Extent to which in-service courses focused on the special career choice/transition problems likely to be faced by migrant/refugee youth, as a percentage

	Extensively or very extensively	To a moderate extent	Mentioned in passing	Not mentioned
ACT Government	-	9.1	36.4	54.5
Non-government	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	5.0	12.5	40.0	42.5
Non-government	20.0	20.0	20.0	40.0
NT Government	33.3	-	16.7	50.0
Non-government	-	-	-	100.0
QLD Government	-	8.0	12.0	80.0
Non-government	11.1	-	22.2	66.7
SA Government	17.6	5.9	41.2	35.3
Non-government	66.7	33.3	-	-
TAS Government	-	20.0	80.0	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	14.2	19.6	30.3	35.9
Non-government	-	22.8	31.9	45.3
WA Government	8.3	25.0	25.0	41.7
Non-government	-	-	40.0	60.0
All states				
Government	9.2	14.6	31.3	44.9
Non-government	9.6	15.4	25.0	50.0
Total	9.3	14.8	30.0	45.9

SCHOOL ORGANISATION AND CURRICULUM ISSUES

The questionnaire sought information relating to the general and specific patterns of organisation of careers teaching and counselling in Australian schools; the content of the careers teaching units; the extent to which community agencies such as the Regional Education Office and Commonwealth Employment Service support such programs and teaching units; the role of work experience; the general provision of careers information to pupils; issues of evaluation and assessment of student performance within careers education programs; and general issues with specific relevance to migrant and refugee youth. The emphasis is placed on the general Australian pattern, except where analysis of the data has revealed significant differences among states or between government and non-government schools.

Table 3.18: Extent to which in-service courses prepared respondents to deal with the special career choice/transition problems likely to be faced by migrant/refugee youth, as a percentage

	Extensively or very extensively	To a moderate extent	To a minor extent	Not at all
ACT Government	9.1	-	36.4	54.5
Non-government	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	7.5	12.5	32.5	47.5
Non-government	-	10.0	30.0	60.0
NT Government	-	50.0	-	50.0
Non-government	-	-	-	100.0
QLD Government	4.0	12.0	16.0	68.0
Non-government	-	22.2	11.1	66.7
SA Government	17.6	5.9	41.2	35.3
Non-government	33.3	66.7	-	-
TAS Government	-	20.0	80.0	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	5.3	26.7	26.7	41.3
Non-government	-	31.9	27.3	40.8
WA Government	4.2	16.6	33.3	45.9
Non-government	-	-	40.0	60.0
All states				
Government	6.5	17.3	30.2	46.0
Non-government	1.9	23.0	23.0	52.1
Total	5.5	18.6	28.8	47.1

Timetable allocations for careers teaching

Table 3.19 shows the percentage of respondent schools indicating that careers teaching is timetabled as either a compulsory or elective unit at each year level.

The pattern is clearly one in which, for both government and non-government schools, the greatest significance, at least in timetable terms, is placed on careers teaching at Year 10. At this level, 76.1% of government schools indicated that careers teaching was available as either a compulsory unit (59.2%) or an elective unit (16.9%). For the non-government schools, the overall figure was 68.0%, with 64.0% indicating a compulsory approach and 4.0% an elective approach. The vast majority of schools did not offer either compulsory or elective careers units at Years 7 and 8, and only about 40% did so at Year 9. Likewise, there was a much reduced amount of timetabled time devoted to careers units at Years 11 and 12. The major thrust, in terms of formal curriculum time via the timetable, was at Year 10, which generally

Table 3.19: Careers teaching timetabled allocation*

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Not available						
Government	94.4	83.1	61.2	23.9	64.8	78.1
Non-government	96.0	86.0	58.0	32.0	62.0	76.0
Compulsory unit						
Government	4.2	12.0	29.6	59.2	19.78	11.3
Non-government	4.0	12.0	38.0	64.0	24.0	12.0
Elective unit						
Government	1.4	4.9	9.2	16.9	15.5	10.6
Non-government	-	2.0	4.0	4.0	14.0	12.0

* % of respondent schools in all states

corresponds with the final year of compulsory schooling across the country. The pattern was consistent across all states and territories.

Organisation of timetabled careers teaching

In those schools where careers teaching was a formal timetabled entity, the major organisational pattern at Years 7 and 8 was for a single block unit of two or three lessons per year, and at Year 10 a single block unit of four or five lessons per year. Where careers teaching occurred on a weekly basis throughout the year then the average number of lessons per week at Years 7, 8 and 9 was one. At these levels semester block units tended to be of approximately three lessons.

Some 41.5% of schools reported that they organised careers teaching on a weekly basis for Year 10 throughout the year. In those cases, the average number of lessons per week was one and in only a few instances did it exceed two lessons per week. Approximately 29% of schools reported that they organised a block unit of lessons per term or semester, and a further 29% reported that they used a single block unit of lessons per year as the organisational mode. In either case, there would be an average 10 to 12 lessons in each block unit - although a few schools reported more than 20 lessons and some reported fewer than eight lessons. New South Wales schools were more likely than those in other states to organise careers education throughout the year on the basis of one or two lessons per week.

At Years 11 and 12 the main organisational mode was the single block unit per year - with approximately 5 to 6 lessons being the average unit length. The block unit per semester was the least favoured at this level. Some 35% of respondent schools with timetabled careers units at Year 11, and 38% at Year 12, reported that they provided one or two careers education lessons each week.

With the relatively minor exception, already noted, of New South Wales schools at Year 10, there were no significant differences in organisational pattern

Table 3.20: Careers education average time per week in students' final year of schooling *

		Nil	1-15 minutes	16-30 minutes	31-45 minutes	46-60 minutes	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours	More than 5 hours
ACT	Government	37.5	-	12.5	25.0	-	12.6	-	12.5	-	-
	Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NSW	Government	14.3	5.7	25.7	42.8	2.9	5.7	2.9	-	-	-
	Non-government	37.5	-	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	-	-	-
NT	Government	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Non-government	-	-	-	-	100.0	-	-	-	-	-
QLD	Government	18.8	37.5	6.3	12.6	12.5	6.3	6.3	-	-	-
	Non-government	14.3	28.6	-	57.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
SA	Government	27.3	27.3	9.1	-	18.2	-	9.1	-	9.1	-
	Non-government	-	50.0	-	-	25.0	25.0	-	-	-	-
TAS	Government	-	33.3	-	-	-	66.7	-	-	-	-
	Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIC	Government	41.9	23.3	16.3	4.7	9.3	-	-	2.3	-	2.3
	Non-government	31.6	26.3	15.8	10.5	10.5	5.3	-	-	-	-
WA	Government	13.3	13.3	33.3	26.7	-	13.3	-	-	-	-
	Non-government	-	50.0	50.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All states											
	Government	27.1	17.3	18.1	18.8	6.8	6.8	2.3	1.5	0.7	0.7
	Non-government	23.3	25.6	14.0	16.3	11.6	7.0	2.3	-	-	-
Total		26.1	18.3	17.0	18.2	8.0	6.8	2.3	1.1	0.6	0.6

* % of schools reporting each time span

between states, or between government and non-government schools at the various levels. Overall, the data collected in response to the question regarding average time per week given to careers education supports the pattern already described.

At Years 7, 8 and 9, where careers education is a formal timetable commitment, it was estimated by careers teachers across Australia that students received, on average, less than one hour per week. A somewhat higher figure (2.5 hours per week) was reported for both New South Wales government and non-government schools. At Year 10 the Australian average was approximately 2.0 hours per week, although reportedly higher (3.1 hours per week) in New South Wales and Victorian government schools. Table 3.20 provides a further perspective on the amount of time (both timetabled and not timetabled) devoted to careers education for students in the final year of schooling in all respondent schools.

Overall, 26.1% of schools reported that students in their final year of schooling received no careers education, while a further 36.3% reported that careers education occupied an average of thirty or fewer minutes per week. The pattern is reasonably consistent from state to state, although a relatively high percentage of government schools in Victoria (41.9%) indicated that students in their final year of schooling received no careers education.

Most schools reported that, in ideal circumstances, they would wish for a greater weekly allocation of time devoted to careers education for students undertaking their final year of schooling. Only 4.4% indicated that they would not want students in their final year of schooling to be involved in careers education, whereas 64.1% reported that each final year student should receive between thirty minutes and two hours of careers teaching each week.

As one other perspective on the provision of careers education, schools in which no timetable provision was made were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt that careers education was still a definable but informal curriculum entity. Table 3.21 reports the pattern of response to that question.

While the majority of schools in this category reported that there was little or no provision, even on an informal basis, for careers education at Years 7, 8 and 9, the position was the reverse for Years 10, 11 and 12. Understandably, it would seem that as pupils approach the final years of schooling, there is at least some effort made to incorporate some informal careers education into the curriculum. These patterns are also consistent from state to state and between government and non-government schools.

Careers counselling - formal arrangements

The general pattern of organisation of formal careers counselling for all schools in the sample is shown in Table 3.22.

Clearly, group counselling was used as the sole form of organisation in fewer than one in ten schools, although it was more common for pupils at Years 7, 8 and 9. Individual counselling was used as the sole means in about one in four government schools at all levels, but was not quite so common in non-government schools. Indeed, the most common form of counselling was a combination of both group and individual modes, and this was especially so at Years 9, 10, 11 and 12. At Year 10, 77.5% of government schools and 54.0% of non-government schools organised careers education in this way. When all three types are combined, it is clear that careers counselling was more prevalent as a formal entity at all levels in government schools than in non-government schools. There were few major state differences, although 66.7% of Victorian schools

Table 3.21: Extent to which careers education is a definable/informal but not a timetabled curriculum entity *

		To a very great extent	To a great extent	To a very little extent	Not at all
Year 7	Government	6.0	3.6	73.5	16.9
	Non-government	0.0	10.3	62.1	27.6
Year 8	Government	4.3	11.3	71.3	13.0
	Non-government	0.0	19.4	61.3	19.4
Year 9	Government	5.3	34.7	53.7	6.3
	Non-government	3.6	25.0	64.3	7.1
Year 10	Government	23.7	47.5	27.1	1.7
	Non-government	30.0	45.0	25.0	0.0
Year 11	Government	18.8	45.8	31.3	4.2
	Non-government	15.4	46.2	38.5	0.0
Year 12	Government	27.2	37.0	31.5	4.3
	Non-government	9.1	54.5	36.4	0.0

* % of each year level in all states

Table 3.22: General organisation of normal careers counselling at each year level *

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Group counselling only						
Government (N=142)	4.9	7.0	10.6	2.1	1.4	1.4
Non-government (N=50)	6.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	0.0	0.0
Individual counselling only						
Government (N=142)	25.4	33.8	27.5	20.4	29.6	26.8
Non-government (N=50)	8.0	12.0	10.0	14.0	22.0	24.0
Both group and individual counselling						
Government (N=142)	7.0	24.6	50.7	77.5	59.2	57.0
Non-government (N=50)	14.0	16.0	30.0	54.0	42.0	40.0
No formal arrangements						
Government (N=142)	62.7	34.6	11.2	0.0	9.8	15.3
Non-government (N=50)	72.0	64.0	52.0	24.0	36.0	36.0

* % of respondent schools in all states

reported offering formal counselling to students at Years 7 and 8 - a figure, at least at Year 7, well above the Australian average. The use of individual counselling was also reported more frequently in Victorian schools than in those of other states.

Individual counselling

Table 3.23 shows the average number of individual careers counselling sessions received by each student in those schools (approximately 96% of the sample) offering individual counselling, either solely or in conjunction with group counselling.

Ignoring differences between states and systems, it appears that 30.1% of pupils received three individual careers counselling sessions during their secondary schooling, while 14.2% received one such session, and 26.7% two sessions. A further 28.9% received more than three individual counselling sessions. For students in government schools, the mean number of individual counselling sessions was 3.1, while for non-government schools the mean was approximately 2.6 sessions. Although there were minor differences between the states, the general pattern was reasonably consistent.

Table 3.23: Average number of individual careers counselling sessions received by each student during secondary school years, as a percentage

	1	2	3	4	5	More than 5
ACT Government	62.5	-	37.5	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
NSW Government	12.8	35.9	17.9	15.4	5.1	12.8
Non-government	14.3	57.1	14.3	-	-	14.3
NT Government	-	50.0	50.0	-	-	-
Non-government	-	-	100.0	-	-	-
QLD Government	17.6	23.5	29.4	11.8	5.9	11.8
Non-government	20.0	40.0	40.0	-	-	-
SA Government	10.0	-	60.0	20.0	-	10.0
Non-government	-	33.3	66.7	-	-	-
TAS Government	66.7	-	-	-	-	33.3
Non-government	-	-	-	-	-	-
VIC Government	6.5	13.0	34.8	21.7	8.9	15.2
Non-government	15.0	30.0	20.0	20.0	5.0	10.0
WA Government	-	50.0	35.7	7.1	-	7.1
Non-government	25.0	50.0	-	-	-	25.0
All states:						
Government	13.8	23.2	31.2	15.2	5.1	11.6
Non-government	15.8	39.5	26.3	10.5	2.6	5.3
Total	14.2	26.7	30.1	14.2	4.5	10.2

As Table 3.24 reveals, 26.4% received 16 to 30 minutes of individual counselling in their final year of schooling, a further 16.9% received 31 to 45 minutes, and 16.9% 45 to 60 minutes. Approximately 32% of pupils received more than one hour of counselling in their final year. A slightly larger percentage of government school pupils (67.7%) received more than 30 minutes counselling than did non-government school pupils (58.9%). There were no major differences between states.

Table 3.24: Extent of individual careers counselling received by each student in his/her final year of schooling *

	Government	Non-government	Total
Nil	2.1	2.6	2.2
1 - 15 minutes	5.0	7.7	5.6
16 - 30 minutes	25.2	30.8	26.4
31 - 45 minutes	15.8	20.5	16.9
46 - 60 minutes	18.7	10.3	16.9
1 - 2 hours	16.5	12.8	15.7
2 - 3 hours	7.2	5.1	6.7
3 - 4 hours	2.1	-	1.7
4 - 5 hours	1.4	-	1.1
More than 5 hours	5.8	10.3	6.7

* % of respondent schools in all states

As one might expect, when careers teachers and counsellors were asked about the amount of individual counselling students in their final year should receive, the amount of time indicated was greater than the actual. Overall, 65.6% of schools reported that ideally, they would prefer that their final year pupils received more than one hour of individual counselling. There was only a small difference in this regard between the response of government schools (66.9% holding this view) and non-government schools (61.4%). This result is also consistent with that obtained when information was sought about the ideal level of careers teaching students should receive. In both responses, there was clear evidence that schools, at least as represented by the careers teacher and/or counsellor, would like to see a significant increase in time allocated to careers education.

Stimulus for individual counselling

The initial motivation or stimulus for an individual counselling session may come from a student seeking advice from a counsellor, or from the counsellor offering students the opportunity for counselling sessions. Of course, in the latter case, it may well be that counsellors will offer individual counselling opportunities only to those students they believe to be most in need. Table 3.25 shows the relative significance of each of these initiating strategies as reported by careers counsellors across Australia. State data has not been published because there are virtually no differences in the pattern from state to state. Similarly, the table ignores the minor differences between government and non-government schools.

Table 3.25: Initial motivation for individual counselling, as a percentage

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Student-initiated	86.8	81.4	68.8	43.8	52.5	44.7
Counsellor-initiated by offer to each student	6.1	9.7	15.9	45.1	39.0	47.4
Counsellor-initiated by offer to each student in need	7.1	8.9	15.3	11.1	8.5	7.9

At the junior secondary levels (Years 7, 8 and 9) students were clearly the major initiators of individual counselling sessions, but this changed in Year 10 when counsellors were most likely to initiate such sessions by making them available to all students. However, even at Years 10, 11 and 12, students remained major initiators of such counselling sessions - and it was reported generally that about 45% of individual sessions were initiated by students. The greater significance of counsellor-initiated sessions at these levels is understandable, given that there was such a limited counselling service available in schools. It would seem that counsellors were most likely to see their role as being more important as students approached the point of transition to either the workforce or the tertiary education sector. Counselling of individuals judged to be 'in need' was not a general occurrence, although when it did occur it was more likely to be at senior levels.

Parental attendance at individual counselling sessions

Table 3.26 provides information about parental attendance at individual counselling sessions.

The table reveals that parents were rarely invited to attend individual counselling sessions at Years 7 and 8, but at Years 10, 11 and 12 they were invited on about 70% of occasions. After Year 8 it was more likely that parents would be invited by the counsellor only after he/she had discussed this with the student concerned. Unfortunately, as Table 3.27 reveals, a great many parents did not respond to these invitations, especially if their children were in the junior secondary years.

Overall, it would appear that about 60% of parents of students in Years 10, 11 and 12 on most occasions attend interview sessions with a counsellor when invited to do so: some 40% of parents only occasionally, if ever, attend such sessions. Table 3.28 indicates the extent to which migrant parents were more or less likely to attend individual counselling sessions than were non-migrant parents.

Table 3.26: Parental attendance at individual counselling sessions at each year level, as a percentage

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Parents invited by student	7.2	12.4	15.9	15.0	15.9	16.5
Parents invited by counsellor	10.8	14.0	18.5	23.5	21.2	21.3
Parents invited by counsellor after consultation with student	9.6	8.5	20.5	27.0	33.5	32.3
Parents rarely, if ever, invited	72.3	65.1	45.0	34.5	29.4	29.9

Table 3.27: Extent to which parents attend individual counselling sessions when invited, as a percentage

		Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
All the time	Government	16.3	20.3	17.6	17.0	18.6	18.4
	Non-government	10.0	16.6	28.6	19.4	25.9	26.9
	Overall	15.3	19.3	19.8	17.6	20.2	20.2
Mostly	Government	30.6	29.7	36.5	41.1	42.2	40.8
	Non-government	-	37.5	19.0	33.3	29.6	26.9
	Overall	25.4	31.8	33.0	39.2	39.5	38.0
Fifty per cent of the time	Government	4.1	4.7	4.7	8.0	7.8	6.8
	Non-government	10.0	4.2	4.8	8.3	3.7	3.8
	Overall	5.1	4.5	4.7	8.1	7.0	6.2
Only occasionally	Government	26.5	29.7	29.4	28.6	28.4	29.1
	Non-government	40.0	20.8	28.6	36.1	37.0	38.5
	Overall	28.8	27.3	29.2	30.4	30.2	31.0
Never	Government	22.4	15.6	11.8	5.4	2.9	4.9
	Non-government	40.0	20.8	19.0	2.8	3.7	3.8
	Overall	25.4	17.0	13.2	4.7	3.1	4.7

Table 3.28 also suggests that most careers counsellors believed that migrant parents were not much more likely to attend counselling sessions than non-migrant parents. Some 28% to 30% of counsellors perceived migrant parents as much less likely than other parents to attend individual counselling sessions. This perception was consistent for parents of students at all year levels across Australia, in both government and non-government schools.

Table 3.28: The extent to which migrant parents were more or less likely than other parents to attend individual counselling sessions, as a percentage

	Much more likely	About the same	Much less likely
Year 7	0.0	72.0	28.0
Year 8	4.0	68.0	28.0
Year 9	7.6	66.3	26.1
Year 10	6.6	66.1	27.3
Year 11	5.6	63.9	30.6
Year 12	3.8	66.7	29.5

Interpreter facilities for migrant parents

Table 3.29 reveals the reported availability of interpreter facilities for migrant parents attending individual counselling sessions between counsellor and student.

Table 3.29: Availability of interpreter facilities in schools for migrant parents attending individual counselling sessions, as a percentage

	Available	Not available	No response
ACT	0.0	50.0	50.0
NSW	17.8	66.7	15.5
NT	66.7	33.3	0.0
QLD	18.5	51.9	29.6
SA	40.0	26.7	33.3
TAS	0.0	100.0	0.0
VIC	52.8	30.6	17.4
WA	21.1	57.9	21.0
All states	32.3	46.4	21.3

One in three of the sample schools reported that they had interpreter facilities to assist migrant parents attending counselling interviews. In Victoria and South Australia, where there are large migrant populations, the level of interpreter availability was above the national average (eg. Victoria 52.8% and South Australia 40.0%) but New South Wales and Western Australia,

which also have large migrant populations, reported a much lower level of interpreter availability - 17.8% and 21.1% respectively.

Community support for careers teachers

Table 3.30 presents the level of support from various local government and other community agencies reported by schools.

Table 3.30: Community institution/agency support for careers teachers *

	Very strong support	Strong support	Moderate support	Occasional support	Very rarely	No response
Local Regional Education Office	20.7	17.6	21.3	18.6	21.8	-
Local CES Youth Resource Officer	21.3	31.4	27.7	16.0	3.7	-
Education Department Careers Education Office	18.6	19.1	21.8	20.2	20.2	-
Department of Employment and Industrial Relations	10.1	17.0	15.4	24.5	33.0	-
Tertiary Education Advisory Council	6.9	9.0	9.6	11.7	36.2	26.6
Other government agencies	4.8	10.6	5.9	7.4	27.1	44.1
Migrant Resource Centres	-	3.7	1.6	6.9	56.9	31.9
Migrant Language Centres	0.5	1.6	2.1	6.4	58.0	31.4
Other community agencies	3.2	9.0	10.0	11.2	26.6	39.9

* % of respondent schools, all states

The strongest support appears to have come from key agencies such as local Regional Education Offices, CES Youth Resource Offices and Education Department Careers Education Offices. The Department of Employment and Industrial Relations was seen as offering only moderate support, while other agencies appear to have provided little support to most schools. Accessibility of agencies will be a factor influencing their ability to offer support to schools in some areas, but the fact that so many schools indicated that they used some agencies 'very rarely' implies that they did at least know of their existence. The pattern revealed by the table is consistent across the states, and there were no significant differences between government and non-government schools.

Careers education courses or units

This section examines the cognitive and affective elements of careers education courses or units and the importance attached to various elements by school careers teachers or counsellors. Table 3.31 indicates the level of importance

Table 3.31: Importance given to particular elements within current careers education, courses or units *

	Very important	Important	Moderately important	Not so important	Unimportant
1. Knowledge of the world of work	50.0	41.5	5.7	2.8	-
2. Knowledge of the nature and value of further education	42.8	43.3	11.6	2.3	-
3. Understanding of self	61.8	30.6	4.7	2.3	0.6
4. Knowledge of jobs (including job changes)	38.2	45.5	13.9	2.4	-
5. Work experience	67.1	24.7	5.9	1.8	0.6
6. Decision-making skills	39.0	41.8	15.8	2.3	1.1
7. Knowledge of agencies such as CES	38.9	44.6	13.7	1.7	1.1
8. Inter-personal communication	28.0	37.8	25.6	8.5	-
9. Job application skills	64.0	26.9	8.0	1.1	-
10. Interview skills	61.0	25.4	11.9	1.7	-
11. Presentation of self	62.9	29.4	5.9	1.8	-
12. Knowledge of training courses (apprenticeships etc.)	39.0	47.9	10.7	2.4	-
13. Need to maximise career options	53.8	34.9	10.7	0.6	-
14. Need to be responsible	40.9	42.6	12.5	4.0	-
15. Changing student job stereotypes	32.9	37.7	21.8	7.6	-
16. Educational requirements of specific careers/jobs	48.2	38.4	12.2	1.2	-

* % of respondent schools, all states

which careers teachers gave to particular elements within their courses or units.

Those elements rated as very important by at least 50% of respondents were:

- work experience (67.1%)
- job application skills (64.0%)
- presentation of self (62.9%)
- understanding of self (61.8%)
- interview skills (61.0%)
- need to maximise career options (53.8%)
- knowledge of the world of work (50.0%).

In other words, the focus was on ensuring that students had experience in the workplace, the skills to apply for jobs, and the personal understanding to present effectively for interview. Also stressed was the need for the individual to understand his/her own needs, aspirations and abilities. Maximising career options and knowledge of the world of work were also seen as highly important elements in most courses.

Most of the remaining elements were regarded as at least 'important' aspects of current course structures although, somewhat paradoxically, 'inter-personal communication skills' were given a relatively low status, as was 'changing student job stereotypes'. This latter element is one that might be expected to be given a higher profile in these days of equal opportunity. It would certainly seem to be of vital importance to migrant students, especially girls who are frequently conditioned by their social and cultural environment to view many fields of employment as being either inappropriate or unavailable to them. Detailed examination of response by state suggests a general consistency with this overall pattern, although teachers in Victoria indicated that they attached greater importance to 'changing job stereotypes' than did teachers in other states. It is interesting to note that, when asked to list the three elements (from the list provided and shown here in Table 3.30) which they would regard as being of the greatest importance in a careers program of limited duration at Year 10 level, careers teachers provided the following in order of importance:

- understanding of self
- job application skills
- interview skills/presentation of self.

In other words, the emphasis was on those aspects which relate strongly to the individual, his/her personality, maturity and presentation of self, and therefore directly to their ability to seek, obtain and hold employment.

It is not possible, in any meaningful way, to describe and analyse statistically the responses to those questions which sought information about the special provisions for migrant and refugee youth which are made within current programs and those provisions which careers educators deem necessary if the careers education needs of migrant and refugee youth are to be met properly. The questionnaires revealed that many teachers had simply not thought about these issues. Rather, the following provides a general resume of the comments made by those teachers employed in schools with a significant migrant and/or refugee enrolment.

At one extreme, there was the comment from one teacher to the effect that 'they are treated no differently'. While this was an isolated comment, the fact that 80% of respondents offered no comments at all about 'current special provisions for migrant and refugee youth' could indicate that this teacher's remark may

reflect a far more general practice. Of course, there were several teachers who argued that their schools offered elective careers education units and, within that context, any special provisions for any group would imply or create the impression of stereotyping. Hence, they offered no such provisions. Overall, however, some 20% of careers educators across Australia indicated that they did make some, albeit limited, special provisions for migrant and refugee youth.

It appears that where special provisions were made they fell into two general categories:

- the provision of appropriate language assistance, whether by using the school-based ESL staff, outside interpreters, or documents printed in community languages, and

- the provision of work experience in supportive and non-threatening environments.

However, although these provisions are in themselves highly commendable, there is little to suggest that schools anywhere in Australia have seen the need to create a careers education program for migrant and refugee youth substantively different to that offered to Australian-born students. This conclusion is not greatly altered by consideration of the specific comments made by careers teachers when asked about the special provision which would be necessary for an effective program in careers education for migrant and refugee youth. On the other hand, this question did elicit responses from approximately 45% of careers teachers, compared to a response rate of only 20% to the question about current provisions.

The following selection of comments about 'necessary special provisions' represents the range and substance of comments received and has been organised into two broad groups. The first group comprises those comments most strongly related to the provision of careers education and counselling services in schools, and the second group comprises those suggestions which relate more strongly to the clientele (including the parents).

First group

- There is a need for more suitably qualified (especially language skilled) counsellors who can devote time and expertise to migrant and refugee youth.

- There is a need for more individual counselling.

- We need more support staff in schools to enable careers educators and counsellors to provide individual counselling.

- We need greater access to interpreters.

[We need]

- more staff

- smaller groups and more resources

- greater time support for ESL teachers so that they can provide personal counselling

- more in-service education for careers staff specifically related to

effectively aiding migrant and refugee youth

. more effective co-ordination of community resources so that schools know what is available and where and how to make use of these resources

. increased staff awareness (all staff - not just careers educators) of the problems of migrant and refugee youth.

Second group

[We need]

. more intensive English classes (and mathematics classes) for migrant and refugee youth *

. more materials to be published in community languages including audio-tape material for parents

. greater involvement of migrant parents

. education of migrant parents on the Australian system and how the expectations of various groups in the community (including their own children) may differ from those they currently hold

. education of migrant parents so that they are not overly ambitious for their children

. education of employers to counter some of their anti-migrant attitudes

. a greater program stress on the Australian workforce - to increase knowledge and industrial vocabulary.*

Several pertinent observations can be made after study of this list and of the various other comments made by respondents to the questionnaire. The first is that only two (those marked with an asterisk) make substantive suggestions about the content of careers education programs and units. The second is that many of the provisions suggested would have been argued for if the question had been about providing effective careers education for <u>all</u> students. In other words, while in a few schools the pressure of high migrant and refugee enrolments may make communication difficult and demand greater language support, it does seem that there was not a major case made for special careers education provisions for migrant and refugee youth. As several respondents stated, 'there is no evidence that migrants are disadvantaged in this area'.

<u>Work experience</u>

The general provision of work experience for students in Years 9, 10, 11 and 12 is shown in Table 3.32.

The clear conclusions to be drawn from the table are that:

. the greatest concentration on work experience occurs at the Year 10 level, which is for most pupils their final year of compulsory schooling

. the normal length of a work experience segment is, on average, one to two weeks

. about 10% of all work experience fits a slightly different model - that is, it is often student initiated and organised. In many schools,

students make contact with employers and virtually organise the whole experience, although the careers teacher is responsible for formalising the activity and ensuring that employers are aware of school policy, responsibilities, etc.

Table 3.32: Provision for work experience in Australian schools Years 9 - 12 *

	Year 9**	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
Nil	79.2	9.0	42.7	70.3
One week per year	8.9	35.4	18.3	6.8
One session of two weeks per year	1.0	33.3	13.0	5.7
Two sessions of one week per year	-	12.0	8.3	3.6
Two sessions of two weeks per year	-	2.1	3.1	1.0
Other (eg. individual request)	10.9	8.3	14.6	12.0

* % of respondent schools, all states
** Victorian and New South Wales schools were somewhat more likely than schools in other states to offer work experience at Year 9, often at the end of the school year and organised by the student.

Overall, the data suggest little in the way of real differences between government and non-government schools, or between schools in different states.

Matching individuals with job type

Table 3.33 shows the general policy in regard to the way in which individual students are matched with specific jobs for work experience.

Table 3.33: Matching individual students with jobs, Years 9 to 12*

	Student preference only	Staff judgement only	Student staff consultation
Year 9	34.7	4.1	61.2
Year 10	29.3	1.6	69.1
Year 11	28.7	0.9	70.4
Year 12	28.6	0.0	71.4

* % of schools offering work experience at each level, all states

Clearly, it is extremely rare for students at any level to be allocated to jobs on the basis of staff judgement alone. At Years 10, 11 and 12 the matching of

students with jobs would appear to be, in about 70% of cases, a matter for joint consultation between staff and students. In the other (approximately 30%) of cases it was each student's preference that determined which job was taken for the work experience program.

Factors influencing student job decisions

Careers teachers were also asked to indicate the level of importance they attached to a number of factors when placing students for work experience. Subsequent interviews and written comments from respondents indicated that, even where students were given their own choice, careers teachers encouraged them to consider these factors at about the same level of significance. Table 3.34 shows the importance which careers teachers attached to these factors.

Table 3.34: Matching individual students with jobs: the importance of three specific factors *

Factor		Very important	Important	Moderately important	Not so important	Unimportant
Students' current interests and ambitions	Year 9	37.5	29.2	22.9	8.3	2.1
	Year 10	46.4	38.0	15.6	-	-
	Year 11	57.0	37.7	5.3	-	-
	Year 12	68.7	28.4	2.9	-	-
The desire to broaden student experience	Year 9	36.2	53.2	8.5	2.1	-
	Year 10	46.0	40.9	12.5	0.6	-
	Year 11	42.1	44.9	11.2	1.8	-
	Year 12	45.9	36.1	14.8	3.2	-
Employer specifications re type of person required	Year 9	12.3	26.3	36.8	17.5	7.1
	Year 10	15.8	29.5	32.6	18.4	3.7
	Year 11	16.0	29.4	32.8	21.0	0.8
	Year 12	12.5	37.5	26.6	23.4	-

* % of schools offering work experience at each level

Overall, it seems that teachers generally considered the students' current interests and ambitions, and their need to broaden experience, as the key factors, with the former becoming increasingly important as students progressed from Year 9 to Year 12. Employer specifications as to the type of people they require were regarded as of only moderate importance. This does not necessarily mean that teachers ignored such specifications, but rather that employers themselves did not make very specific requests and, therefore, their influence on job placement is of lesser significance in comparison with the other two factors.

Payment

Table 3.35 shows the practice relating to payment of students for work done during work experience programs. The table focuses on Year 10 students, and

allows for state by state comparisons. However, analysis of the data shows quite clearly that the pattern at Year 10 in each state is also typical of the pattern at Years 9, 11 and 12.

Table 3.35: Payment for work experience: an analysis of data relating to Year 10 students in each state and for Australia *

	Paid a nominal sum	Paid at the discretion of the employer	Payment discouraged	Payment not permitted
ACT	-	-	-	100.0
NSW	-	25.0	37.5	37.5
NT	-	-	-	100.0
QLD	-	-	8.0	92.0
SA	-	-	27.3	72.7
TAS	-	-	-	100.0
VIC	59.1	40.9	-	-
WA	-	5.6	33.3	61.1
All states	22.3	22.9	15.4	39.4

* % of schools offering work experience at Year 10

Without question, the most striking feature of this table is the very different practice followed in Victoria, compared to that of other states. In Victoria, virtually all students were paid for work experience - either a pre-determined nominal sum or an amount determined by the employer. Yet, in the other states, payment was actively discouraged or prohibited. It is not easy to find a logical and/or job-related reason for the difference in practice, nor does it seem to create any real differences in the availability of jobs because, as has been noted previously, some 91% of the schools in this sample offered work experience to Year 10 students.

Availability to parents of information in community languages

Only 30 (15.6%) of schools indicated that material relating to work experience programs was available in community languages, and 24 (80%) of these were Victorian schools. This would seem to be a most serious deficiency and must contribute to the lack of real contact and liaison between staff (especially careers staff and counsellors) and parents.

Those languages in which some material on work experience programs had been made available include:

- Greek (16 schools)
- Italian (14 schools)
- Vietnamese (8 schools)
- Arabic (4 schools)
- Chinese (4 schools)
- Lebanese (3 schools)
- Serbo-Croatian (5 schools)
- Cambodian (2 schools)
- Maltese(2 schools)
- Macedonian (1 school)
- Portuguese (1 school).

The provision of careers information

The questionnaire posed a series of related questions concerning the availability, quality and dissemination of careers information. The results obtained from these questions are summarised in the sections which follow.

Availability of material on careers: general

Table 3.36 summarises the data concerning the way information is made available to students.

Table 3.36: Availability of careers information*

	%
Display boards throughout school	78.1
In careers room	82.3
In careers library	60.9
In general school library	76.6
Handouts to students	89.6
Mailed to parents	19.3
Parents via students	69.3
Parents via careers information sessions	58.3

* % of schools indicating use of particular mode, all states

Clearly, a wide variety of means of making careers information available is used, although these are obviously directed to students rather than parents.

Responses to subsequent questions revealed that careers information was regularly updated in virtually all schools. In most schools (83.3%) the material was updated whenever new material became available.

Information sessions for parents were organised by nearly 60% of schools and were usually timetabled on a once-a-year basis. Table 3.37 shows the general time organisation of such sessions.

Table 3.37: Frequency of career information sessions for parents *

	%
Less than once a year	19.7
Once a year	49.6
Twice a year	22.2
More than twice a year	8.5

* % of schools holding such sessions, all states

Availability of careers information to migrant parents

Of vital significance to this study was the finding that only seven of the sample schools were able to state that any of their information sessions were

organised specifically for migrant parents. This means that only about 6% of those schools which offer information sessions organise one or more each year for the particular benefit of migrant parents: this represents only 3.6% of all schools in the sample. Four of these schools were in Victoria, two were in New South Wales, and one was in Queensland.

Marginally more optimistic was the finding that 18 schools (15.3% of the schools holding careers information sessions for parents, and 9.4% of the total sample of schools) claimed that interpreter facilities were available at all information sessions. However, the use of interpreter facilities on such occasions was confined to only 12 schools in Victoria, three in New South Wales and one in each of South Australia, Western Australia and Queensland.

The languages most commonly represented at such sessions were:

- Arabic
- Chinese
- Greek (especially in Victoria)
- Italian
- Maltese
- Spanish
- Turkish
- Vietnamese.

Most commonly, schools offering interpreter facilities did so in more than one language.

Assistance from outside organisations

Table 3.38 shows the extent to which outside organisations were the source of various types of information commonly utilised by careers teachers and counsellors.

Clearly, all three sources were of major importance to careers teachers, although the response suggests a considerable difficulty for schools wishing to obtain printed material in community langauges about careers. While government agencies and education authorities provided some help, it may well be that a more concerted effort should be made to obtain employer assistance in this respect.

Government labour market programs: availability of information

Table 3.39 summarises the responses to the question relating to the availability of literature on various government labour market programs and services.

The evidence of the table suggests a high level of availability of literature relating to programs and support offered by the CES, apprenticeships, TAFE and other tertiary programs. Literature relating to SYETP, EPUY, and CYSS is not quite so widely available.

Visiting speakers

Table 3.40 indicates the extent to which the sample of Australian schools utilises a number of significant employment-related agencies or bodies as a source of visiting speakers.

Table 3.38: Careers information from outside organisations

	Sources		
	Employers and employer associations	Education authorities	Other government agencies (eg. CES)
Printed material on employment and careers (in English)	82.3	84.9	88.5
Printed material on employment and careers (in community languages)	2.6	18.2**	24.0
Visiting speakers	75.5	27.1	75.0
Audio-visual material	40.6	53.1	66.1
Structured work experience	91.7	-	-
Structured curriculum units	-	41.7	-

* % of respondent schools, all states
** predominantly in New South Wales and Victoria

Table 3.39: Availability of literature on government labour market programs and services*

Programs	%
CES	94.8
CYSS	73.9
SYETP	45.8
EPUY	51.6
Apprenticeships	95.5
TAFE	95.5
Tertiary programs	94.8

* % of respondent schools indicating availability, all states

Table 3.40: Sources of visiting speakers*

	Regularly	Often	Seldom	Never	No knowledge
Trade union movement	3.1	4.2	35.4	57.3	7.8
CES	31.8	36.9	24.0	7.3	-
Tertiary institutions	32.3	28.6	23.9	15.2	0.6
Employer groups	13.5	27.1	35.9	23.5	0.6
Local employers	15.6	21.9	38.5	24.0	0.6
Migrant Resource Centres	0.6	3.1	9.9	86.4	12.5
TEAC	1.6	3.6	14.6	80.2	13.0
Unemployed youth groups (eg. CYSS)	6.3	14.1	33.3	46.3	6.3
Past students' association	7.3	11.5	24.0	57.2	5.7

* % of schools utilising each source and general frequency of use, all states

Among those most frequently used were the CES, the various tertiary institutions, major employer groups and local employers. Other groups, including Migrant Resource Centres, were not often called upon to supply speakers for careers education programs. However, most careers teachers were aware of the potential of many agencies and organisations as sources of visiting speakers. The use of Migrant Resource Centres is almost exclusively confined to schools in Victoria and New South Wales. Other bodies that were mentioned by careers teachers included the Armed Forces, individual parents with special expertise, and local legal services.

Evaluation and assessment

Table 3.41 shows the extent to which schools assessed student participation and achievement in careers education programs.

Overall, one in two schools made some formal assessment of student participation, and this pattern was consistent for both government and non-government schools. However, schools in South Australia, the Australian Capital Territory, Victoria and to a lesser extent New South Wales were somewhat above the national average, while Queensland schools and those in Western Australia, the Northern Territory and Tasmania were less likely to use formal assessment within careers education units. The various forms of this assessment are shown in Table 3.42.

Table 3.41: Assessment of student participation in careers education programs*

ACT	62.5
NSW	55.3
NT	33.3
QLD	26.9
SA	64.3
TAS	33.3
VIC	58.2
WA	31.6
All states	50.3

* % of schools reporting assessment

Table 3.42: Modes of assessment of student participation and achievement in careers education programs *

	Written report to student	Written report to parents	Letter grade	Numerical mark	Oral report to student	Oral report to parent
ACT	-	80.0	80.0	-	20.0	-
NSW	1.5	30.8	23.1	3.8	30.8	7.7
NT	-	100.0	100.0	-	-	100.0
QLD	14.3	28.6	14.3	14.3	28.6	14.3
SA	66.7	55.6	55.6	-	22.2	11.1
TAS	100.0	-	-	-	100.0	-
VIC	69.2	56.4	30.8	7.7	20.5	10.3
WA	100.0	50.0	33.3	16.7	50.0	-
All states	60.6	50.0	34.0	6.4	26.6	9.6

* % of schools reporting such assessment

Many schools, quite understandably, utilised more than one approach to assessment - for example, written and oral reports to students, written reports to both parents and students, etc. Very few schools, however, used a numerical mark or reported orally to parents.

Interestingly, the majority of schools (78.7%) that assessed student participation and achievement in careers education programs, were prepared to make these reports available to prospective employers. In fact, all of the schools in this category in Western Australia, New South Wales, the Northern Territory and Queensland were prepared to make the reports available, compared to only 66.7% of schools in Victoria, 55.5% in South Australia, and 60% in the Australian Capital Territory.

In those cases where reports were made available to employers, the practice in virtually every instance was for the report to be in written form. In a limited number of instances (approximately 26% of schools) the report might also be made orally.

Evaluation of curriculum effectiveness

The questionnaire posed several questions relating to the evaluation of program effectiveness. Table 3.43 shows the percentage of schools undertaking such program evaluations, and whether or not the evaluation was undertaken by the careers staff or by others external to the careers programs.

Table 3.43: Evaluation of careers education programs *

	Program evaluation	Evaluated by careers staff	Evaluated by others
	%	%	%
ACT	57.1	100.0	-
NSW	64.4	100.0	-
NT	66.7	100.0	-
QLD	34.8	87.5	12.5
SA	80.0	66.7	33.3
TAS	66.7	100.0	-
VIC	67.1	82.9	17.1
WA	70.6	75.0	25.0
All states	60.7	86.2	13.8

* percentage reporting program evaluation

Some 60% of schools undertook some program evaluation, with the relative percentages somewhat higher in South Australia, Western Australia and Victoria, and lowest in Queensland. In the majority of cases, the evaluation was made by careers education staff although, in both South Australia and Western Australia, schools reported a significant involvement of people other than careers education staff.

In 69% of the schools where such evaluations were undertaken, the process included follow-up of students after leaving school. Some 78.7% of Victorian schools conducting evaluations included such follow-ups, compared to 75.0% in Queensland and Western Australia, and only 58.6% in New South Wales.

Furthermore, 64.7% of schools which evaluated their programs (or 38.9% of all schools in the sample) kept records of student employment patterns, job types, unemployment histories etc. for a period of years. However, such a practice was most common in Victoria (85.1% of schools) and least common in Western Australia (25.0%). Figures for other states were New South Wales (51.3%), Queensland (50.0%) and South Australia (58.3%).

The general evaluation picture is characterised by internal evaluations on a year-to-year basis without concerted and prolonged follow-up of students in a way which might provide some measure of long-term program effectiveness.

Some general issues

The final section of the questionnaire focused on questions specifically relevant to migrant and refugee youth.

Careers information needs

Table 3.44 summarises the data collected on the extent to which careers teachers perceived the careers information needs of students of Australian-born parents as differing from those of students from other backgrounds.

Table 3.44: Extent to which the careers information needs of students of Australian-born parents differ from those of other students, as a percentage

Comparison groups	A great deal	Moderately	Scarcely at all
Students with parents from other English-speaking countries	2.1	28.1	69.8
Students with parents from non-English-speaking countries	25.0	26.6	48.4

The response suggests that approximately 52% of careers teachers perceived the careers information needs of students whose parents came from non-English-speaking countries to be at least moderately different from the careers information needs of students of Australian-born parents. Furthermore, as Table 3.45 reveals, 19.3% of careers teachers believed that the careers education needs of students whose parents came from non-English-speaking countries were greatly different from those of students with Australian-born parents, and a further 25.0% believed that their needs were moderately different. Yet, the data from these tables sit uneasily beside the earlier reported findings that relatively few schools made any concerted attempt to provide specific programs for such students.

As regards migrant and refugee youth specifically, only 15 (7.8%) of the sample of schools indicated that they offered any special careers education and counselling, and then usually only within the ESL stream. Indeed, there is some evidence from the questionnaire that, to a very great extent, the ESL teachers, because of their language and communicative skills, fulfilled a great many other educational roles for migrant students, including careers education, guidance and counselling. There is, however, little to suggest that in the great majority of schools were special programs in either careers education or counselling provided directly to migrant and refugee youth by careers teachers and counsellors. At best, counsellors may have, in a few instances, offered

Table 3.45: Extent to which the careers education needs of students of Australian-born parents differ from those of other students, as a percentage

Comparison groups	A great deal	Moderately	Scarcely at all
Students with parents from other English-speaking countries	7.3	24.5	68.2
Students with parents from non-English-speaking countries	19.3	25.0	55.7

some extra time for counselling, but the norm was to offer essentially the same program as that offered generally. Schools seem to acknowledge that there are special needs but, whether because of a lack of appropriate material resources or a lack of staff expertise, little is being done. The picture is all too bleak!

Parental expectations and student participation

One of the final questions posed to careers educators was to do with the differing expectations of various parental groups within school communities. This was asked in order to ascertain whether these expectations may themselves be a source of tension between parents and schools, parents of one group as compared to parents of another, and between students and parents. The results are summarised for the total sample of schools in Table 3.46.

The table suggests that careers teachers perceived that:

- Australian-born parents were somewhat less likely than the other two groups of parents to value formal qualifications highly, but they had greater concern for employment-related education. A small percentage of teachers saw Australian-born parents as having few or no expectations.

- Parents from other English-speaking countries tended to follow the general pattern, although they had slightly lower expectations of the returns from mainstream education.

- Parents from non-English-speaking countries differed in that they were seen as expecting more from mainstream education, as having a somewhat higher regard for formal qualifications, and less regard for education for employment.

It is difficult to argue the implications of these findings because it may well be that they represent a more important statement of view for those who wish to seek radical change in the school curriculum as a whole, rather than for careers educators per se. On the other hand, the fact that parents who were born in non-English-speaking countries were seen by careers teachers to be somewhat less concerned about preparation for employment (at least in the short-term arena of the school, and without taking into account their concern for qualifications and general education outcomes) may make it relatively more

Table 3.46: Careers teachers' perceptions of parental expectations*

	Expect a great deal from mainstream education	High level of belief in formal qualifications	Belief in preparation for employment	Little specific sense of expectation
Australian-born parents	25.1	37.2	34.9	2.8
Parents from other English-speaking countries	22.9	44.1	31.2	1.8
Parents from non-English-speaking countries	27.9	48.6	22.9	0.6
Total	25.3	42.8	30.1	1.8

* % of respondents from all schools surveyed

difficult to involve those parents in appropriate interactive careers education and counselling. One might expect that, if careers teachers have accurately assessed parental attitudes on this issue, it would be reflected in the degree of participation by various groups within the school in the careers education program.

The data pertaining to this question of participation are provided in Table 3.47. To some extent, there is evidence in the table, at least in so far as perceived by careers teachers, that students whose parents have been born in non-English-speaking countries were less likely to participate in the full program, especially in the work experience units. Such students were also slightly more likely than the general student corpus to participate in careers education only when it is a compulsory element in the curriculum. The data presented in Table 3.47, therefore, provide support for the argument arising from that presented in Table 3.46 - that parental expectations appear to influence student participation.

The identification of early school leavers

One of the final questions sought to identify the extent to which schools believed that they catered for potential early school leavers by providing specially tailored workforce survival programs. Although 47.0% of all the schools in the sample claimed to have such programs, in only 57.6% of these was a potential early school leaver group identified. Schools in New South Wales were more likely to offer such programs than were schools in other states. There is no evidence, however, of other significant state differences or, indeed, that migrant and/or refugee youth constituted a significant element of such programs.

Table 3.47: Specific group participation in the careers education program as assessed by careers educators, as a percentage

	Total participation in full program	Participation in all of program except work experience	Participation only when compulsory
All students	80.3	4.1	15.6
All boys	79.0	2.9	18.1
All girls	81.7	1.8	16.5
Boys with a background in another English-speaking country	76.5	7.1	16.4
Girls with a background in another English-speaking country	79.1	3.5	17.4
Boys with a background in a non-English-speaking country	69.0	10.7	20.3
Girls with a background in a non-English-speaking country	71.8	10.6	17.6

Synthesis and directions

This section focuses specifically on the series of questions detailed in the evaluation brief.

It draws mainly from the data derived from the questionnaire and school interview phases, as well as utilising perspectives from interviews with key individuals in relevant departments and organisations.

Careers teachers

Across Australia there were on average, 1.7 teachers with responsibility for careers per government school. The corresponding figure for non-government schools was 1.2 teachers. In Victoria, Western Australia and New South Wales there was no significant difference in provision between the government and non-government schools, although in Queensland and South Australia the government provision was almost double that of the non-government schools.

Careers teachers across the country were dominantly male, with a modal age between 31 and 40. Female careers teachers were also mainly in this age bracket, although many more females than males were aged between 21 and 30. Australia, or another English-speaking country, was the birthplace for 96% of careers teachers in government schools, and for 90% in non-government schools: 12% reported speaking a European language; fewer than one percent indicated

ability to speak an Asian language. The level of reported familiarity with non-Anglo cultures was of the order of 10% for Northern European cultures and considerably less than 10% for all others.

General teaching had been the main professional training for 73% of careers teachers. Fewer than 10% had received direct professional training in careers education and counselling, although some few report training in ancillary fields. While approximately 80% had a degree, and virtually all possessed a teaching qualification, only 1.7% possessed a formal qualification in careers counselling. More than 50% of all careers teachers in the sample received their formal expertise in the area via a basic in-service course. While careers teachers were of incredibly varied background, it is worth noting that almost 50% of them had a background in History/Geography/Social Science.

At the time of the survey, only half of the teachers in government schools, and fewer than 30% of non-government school teachers, reported that careers education was their main professional area. The overwhelming picture is one of careers teachers lacking a strong professional preparation for their role which, in comparison to their other subject teaching responsibilities, many saw as of secondary importance.

Careers teachers indicated a lack of articulated concern for the special needs of migrant and refugee youth in the context of initial training programs - and a consequent lack of preparedness to enable them to respond to these needs. Nine per cent of respondents reported that in-service courses had focused extensively or very extensively on specific transition problems of migrant and refugee youth. Victoria and South Australia appear to be the two states in which such a focus had a higher profile. This was confirmed in discussions with in-service course organisers who readily commented that the specific concerns of migrant and refugee youth received little prominence in current programs. There are some signs that this situation may be improving, with at least one institution intimating the intention to include a more significant component in a proposed Masters program.

Careers teachers' associations seemed to play a larger role in the biggest states, New South Wales and Victoria, and the relatively high level of membership in these states serves to inflate the overall membership figure to more than 50%. While these associations clearly offer valuable support in a number of ways, such as publications and in-service activities, it is equally clear that little specific attention has been given to supporting the careers counselling/information/education needs of migrant and refugee youth. Indeed, some associations seem more concerned with industrial matters affecting the profession - ratios of careers teachers, conditions, legal responsibilities - than with details of the delivery of services.

Careers education in the curriculum

In terms of timetabled careers education allocation, Year 10 had the highest concentration, with 60% of government schools and 64% of non-government schools making it a compulsory unit at that level. In addition, another 18% of government schools and 4% of non-government schools offered an elective unit in careers education.

Relatively few schools timetabled careers education at either Year 7 or 8; about 40% did so at Year 9; 30% at Year 11; and 20% at Year 12. Overall, 26% of schools indicated that students in their final year of schooling received no careers education, while a further 36% of schools supplied, on average, 30 or fewer minutes careers education per week. In general, schools believed that

the status quo was considerably less than ideal, although some indicated that informal attempts were made to introduce careers issues into other areas of the curriculum in Years 10 to 12.

Fifteen per cent of government and 36% of non-government schools had no formalised arrangements for either group or individual counselling at Year 12. In general, it was clear that careers counselling as a formal organisational structure was more typically characteristic of government than non-government schools. The modal number of individual careers counselling sessions a student was likely to receive as part of secondary schooling was three, the majority of such sessions ranging from 16 to 60 minutes.

Parental involvement in individual counselling sessions tended to be invited in about 70% of cases for students in Years 10, 11 and 12. However, some 40% of parents of students at these levels only occasionally, if ever, responded to such invitations. While the majority of careers teachers believed that there was little difference in the response rate of migrant and Australian-born parents, almost 30% perceived migrants as much less likely than other parents to attend individual student counselling sessions. However, the level of availability of interpreter facilities at such sessions almost certainly played a significant role in this. Only one in three of the sample schools reported that such a service was at hand to aid migrant parents.

Information about the liaison of careers teachers with government and community agencies indicates that strong or very strong support was received by 10 to 50% of respondents from their local Regional Education Office, the local CES Resource Officer, and the relevant Education Department Careers Education Office. The strongest 'no response' or 'very rare support' category was that relating to Migrant Language Centres and Migrant Resource Centres where, in each case, the combined percentage was of the order of 85%. One might surmise that this lack of liaison was due primarily to the lack of a tagged careers person in such centres, although staff employed for other duties did attempt to give support when and if they were able.

Initiation into the work place

While the work experience was generally an integral part of careers education at Year 10, information about the work experience program was available in community languages in only 15.6% of schools. Of these, 80% were Victorian schools, suggesting a most serious deficiency in other states.

Nevertheless, there was a high participation rate in work experience on the part of migrant/refugee students. At the same time, careers teachers perceived students of non-English-speaking background as slightly less likely than others to participate in work experience, and also more likely to participate only in compulsory elements of the general careers program. Very few schools provided work experience details in community languages, and it was reported that even where they were provided, the dialect may be inappropriate and therefore inaccessible to the client group.

Program provision for migrant and refugee youth

The evidence of the questionnaires gives rise to the hypothesis that careers teachers in general had not really devoted a great deal of attention to providing for migrant and refugee students' needs. Reactions ranged from the nil response of 80% of participants, to assertions that migrant and refugee youth were treated no differently to other students, to the more detailed

comments of careers teachers in schools with a significant enrolment of migrant/refugee youth.

Special provisions for migrant and refugee youth made by the latter group are characterised by two main thrusts:

- the provision of appropriate language assistance, i.e. the use of school-based ESL staff, external interpreters, documents printed in community languages; and
- the placement of such students in specially chosen, supportive and non-threatening environments for work experience.

Despite the existence of these provisions, each highly commendable in itself, there was little evidence that schools had been motivated by their recognition of the special needs of migrant and refugee youth to create careers education programs catering for these needs.

The latter conclusion is not fundamentally altered when one considers careers teachers' comments about special provisions they considered desirable, although this question elicited a 45% response rate compared with the 20% response to the question on provisions actually made. Two observations may be made.

The first is that many of the provisions cited as necessary are not migrant/refugee specific but would improve general careers education for all students. The second is that, while communication (especially in relation to migrant parents) was seen to be an area of need, no strong case emerges for special careers education programs for migrants. This is understandable, given a general climate of opinion that perceives such students as not specially disadvantaged in their careers education.

Careers information for migrant/refugee youth and their parents

Careers information was disseminated to all students and their parents in a variety of ways. The single most common mode was via handouts to students; the least common was mailed information to parents. However, printed material in community languages was available in only 18.2% of schools, predominantly in New South Wales and Victoria where it emanated from the education authorities. Little account seems to have been taken of the fact that, because of discontinuities in their own education, many migrant parents are not adequately literate in their own language. This in turn means that many migrant parents are not aware of the Australian employment systems and structures and, for a variety of language-related reasons as evidenced by the Scott Report (1980), are unable to assess these readily. The implications for their student children are far-reaching and difficult to remedy.

Only seven of the sample schools (3.5% of the total sample or approximately 6% of those who had organised such sessions) indicated that they held careers information sessions specifically for migrant parents. Four of these schools were in Victoria, two in New South Wales, and one in Queensland. Of the total sample of schools, only 9.4% reported the availability of interpreter facilities at careers information sessions, and this group was dominated by Victoria (66.7%). Moreover, it was pointed out that significant misunderstanding occurred as a result of teacher use of jargon, even among parents with a generally adequate command of English. This compounds the earlier mentioned problem with community language translations.

Information about mainstream government labour market programs and services (CES, TAFE, Tertiary Programs, Apprentices) is widely available, yet programs

such as CYSS, and especially SYETP and EPUY, appear not to have nearly as much visibility. It may be that careers teachers do not give prominence to programs which have a problem flavour, or those which are not perceived as a logical extension or outcome of mainstream education.

Program and student evaluation

Approximately half the schools reported that some formal assessment was made of student participation in careers education. Most commonly, these took the form of descriptive written assessments to parents/students, or oral reports to students. Fewer than 10% made oral reports to parents.

A relatively high level of program evaluation was reported by careers teachers across Australia. Generally, this was informally accomplished, many teachers (42%) indicating that they kept records of ex-students' progress and employment/unemployment. This level of optimism generated by the questionnaire response in relation to evaluation was not substantiated by the interview study. The impression gained here was that many teachers responded to the program evaluation question prospectively - i.e. indicating their intentions rather than their actual current practice.

Careers education needs and expectations: perspectives on parents of migrant and refugee youth

Over 50% of careers teachers perceived that students with parents from non-English-speaking countries differ, either moderately or a great deal, in their careers information needs from those of students with Australian-born parents. Approximately 45% believed that this pattern was also consistent for careers education needs. To this extent, careers teachers acknowledged differences, although only 7.8% of the sample schools indicated that any special careers education was offered to this group. Typically, this was offered under the auspices of the ESL staff who, because of their undoubted communicative competence, ultimately became the most significant purveyors of careers information for this group.

Not only were students of non-English-speaking background perceived to be different from migrants from English-speaking countries and Australian-born students, but their parents were also seen to differ in that they exhibited a higher regard for the efficacy of formal qualifications in the employment sphere. This finding from the questionnaire response was substantiated by a number of comments from careers teachers who, when interviewed, lamented the relatively low impact of their comments in the formal school report. In other words, their perception was that migrant parents were vitally concerned with the substantive issue of the academic performance of their children, and very much less so with diffuse issues such as non-traditional careers for girls, or employment alternatives. These attitudes did not distinguish one ethnic group from another, although there are undoubtedly socio-economic differences between established migrant groups and more recent migrant and refugee arrivals.

Official policies and provisions

While official state education policies undoubtedly contain rhetoric which may be intrepreted as reflective of concern for particular and/or disadvantaged groups, there is little evidence that the precept is translated into practice except in isolated instances, most of them in Victoria. The basic in-service courses for careers teachers do not give great prominence to this area. One of

the larger states, for example, devotes one hour only of its seven-week basic in-service course to migrants and their specific needs.

No direct official provision has been made for careers counsellors per se in Language Centres, yet the individual ESL teacher may play a significant and far-reaching role in this regard with students who do not enter the secondary system in Australia. One has the impression of enormous variation here, as well as a sense that the individual teacher may be the crucial, but idiosyncratic and unpredictable, element in determining the nature, quality and quantity of careers-related information received by any individual student.

Tertiary training provision for careers teachers has been largely responsive to the reality that careers teaching is a second or later teaching commitment for most teachers. Thus, most courses take the form of post-date initial teacher training and, indeed, presume that a practicum has been completed and considerable experience in the field gained.

The content and orientation of such courses is variable, some being responsive to what are seen to be the social and political realities in which education for careers, employment, unemployment and creative leisure must be undertaken. Others are more task oriented with a concentration on the major thrusts of counsellors' day-to-day activities - personal counselling; the provision of accurate careers information and direction; liaison with other staff; external administration via government departments, employers and the community, including parents. While reference is made to special groups there is no evidence that a substantial component of any such course is directed towards the special needs of migrant/refugee youth and/or strategies for coping with problems generated by the mismatch between these needs and Australian society.

Conclusions and directions

In summary, the study revealed that careers education provisions are unsatisfactory for all students, and acutely so for those born overseas. Careers teachers felt that no amount of goodwill and enthusiasm on their part could compensate for their lack of professional preparation in identifying and dealing with the specific problems of migrant students. The few attempts to provide assistance are not all or equally successful. For example, the provision of careers information in community languages tends to fail in instances of migrant parents whose own interrupted or inadequate schooling in their native countries have conspired to create literacy problems in their own language. Even where this kind of language barrier does not exist, much information is not readily translatable into the languages of communities which do not share the same social and industrial structures as Australia.

Careers teachers and others consulted during the study reported that migrant parents tended to have high academic aspirations for their children; some of these people - teachers and others - regard this as unrealistic and as placing additional and inappropriate pressures on migrant students, especially boys. Yet school curriculum organisation, assessment and reporting to parents and community, reinforces the discipline-based, academic nature of schooling. The student may receive a grade or a descriptive assessment, but most teachers do not provide such assessments in a context of what a student's achievement might enable him or her to use in the world of work. Whatever the mode of measurement, if a student's profile of achievement is only ever couched in terms of global academic disciplines such as history, maths, English or music, the links between school and work, school and society, school and the family will always remain tenuous. It is not unreasonable that migrant parents - and

others too - value the academic and build this into their expectations of a profession for their children because they rightly perceive these values to be most visible in the school. The world of work embraces very much more than simply narrow academic professions.

Careers education is, by definition, closely linked with vocational decision making. At the moment it is seen to be the province of the specifically designated careers teacher - with all the attendant problems identified by this study.

Thus, the tension between schools and the world of work would seem to be unavoidable in the present context. Schools have yet to come to grips with this tension. Indeed, it is in the nexus between careers education and the total educational program offered by schools, that answers to the problems identified here must be sought. Such problems are clearly not solely a product of inadequate careers education provision, either generally or for migrant/refugee youth.

ETHNIC GROUPS AND POST-COMPULSORY EDUCATION*

Gerald Burke
Denis Davis

The project reported here was undertaken to complement aspects of the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs' review of labour market programs and services affecting migrant and refugee youth. The general aims of the study were to review the participation of ethnic groups (excluding Aborigines) in post-compulsory education and to examine aspects of the education system bearing on that participation. Particular attention was to be given to the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) sector because of its growing size in post-compulsory education and because so little is known about the participation of the children of migrants in this sector.

The study is presented in two main sections, the first reviewing schools and higher education and the second considering TAFE. The review of schools and higher education includes consideration of a range of special provisions and policies affecting the participation of ethnic groups, as well as documenting the extent of their participation.

The review of TAFE discusses the limitations of the data available and the extent of participation of ethnic groups, especially in trade apprenticeships, and considers the provision of specifically migrant education in TAFE.

The study does not consider programs provided for training such as assistance for apprenticeship under the Commonwealth Rebate for Apprentice Full-time Training (CRAFT) or programs under the TAFE component of the Participation and Equity Program (PEP).

It also provides only brief outlines of the English as a Second Language (ESL) program in schools and of the Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP). The former program has recently been reviewed in detail by Campbell et al. (1984).

The study found that young persons born in non-English-speaking countries, but particularly young persons with parents born in such countries, have relatively high rates of participation in post-compulsory education in both schools and higher education. They appear to have lower rates of participation in TAFE.

The high rate of participation of young persons of non-English-speaking background in post-compulsory schooling appears in part to be caused by their language difficulties: there is some evidence that they tend to be older in a grade and are more likely to repeat a grade. For recent migrants, it could

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also be associated with greater difficulty in obtaining employment. The major factor, however, appears to be very high aspirations for educational and occupational status.

Students of non-English-speaking background are in relatively high proportions in particular regions. Their numbers are disproportionately high in Catholic schools, though the majority of all students of non-English-speaking background are in government schools.

There is some suggestion that the extent to which the participation in higher education of students of non-English-speaking background exceeds that of those of English-speaking background, has grown. Recent data suggest a disproportionately high enrolment in universities, whereas data from the late '60s and early '70s suggested a disproportionate enrolment in CAEs.

Whereas persons of non-English-speaking background are over-represented in schools and higher education, there is some indication they are under-represented in TAFE. How much this under-representation is the result of high aspirations, or to what degree it is caused by the difficulties they face in entry to TAFE-associated occupations, needs further investigation. Personal contact appears to be important in access to apprenticeships. Parental occupational status appears associated with this personal contact, and many migrant parents from non-English-speaking countries are in low status occupations.

Migrant education as such is a new development in TAFE, stemming from a transfer of part of the activities of the Australian Migrant Education Program (AMEP) into TAFE. The intention of the transfer was to link the ESL courses with more general and vocational courses. AMEP is now meant to provide 'basic English' courses for those with less than a minimum competency in English, and TAFE to provide specific purpose courses for those of somewhat higher standard.

Funds for TAFE activities in this area remain small relative to AMEP. This is one factor in the limited achievements so far. Other reasons are the short time the program has been operating in TAFE, the funding on an annual basis with temporary staff, lack of staff development, lack of model programs, lack of support materials, lack of data on the target population, and the peripheral location of the migrant education staff in most state TAFE systems.

SCHOOLS AND HIGHER EDUCATION

This section of the paper is concerned with describing the participation in education of ethnic groups and likely developments in the structure and finance of education. In reviewing participation in education, major attention is given to documenting the proportion of ethnic groups relative to the proportion of the whole population, or of Anglo-Australians engaged in education. This can be supplemented by information relating to aspirations and achievement which is considered in more detail by Anderson and Vervoon (1983) and Sturman (1985). The description of finance and structure in Australian education is an attempt to document the major trends, current policies, and government inquiries with implications for ethnic groups. Consideration is given to the trends in enrolments at school and post-secondary education, sources of funds and levels of funds, special programs for the disadvantaged, including PEP, policies for curriculum and credentials, and student financial support.

Participation

Schools

Data on participation in education can be assembled on various definitions of ethnic groups. Table 4.1 (from the 1981 Census) shows, for 15 to 19-year-olds, differences in school participation by birthplace. It indicates that, in general, a higher proportion of young people born overseas were attending school than persons born in Australia. Analysis of 1976 Census data for New South Wales and Victoria provided similar results. It is notable that a smaller proportion of migrants from the UK and Ireland were attending school than were Australian-born or persons born in those non-English-speaking countries listed.

Differences in school retention rates by gender in Table 4.1 do not appear large, though females born in Lebanon had noticeably lower rates than males.

Closer scrutiny of other data on age at leaving school shows that some ethnic groups with a high percentage staying at school to age 17, also had a high percentage who had left school before age 15. This was true for the Greek-born and those born in Vietnam. In the latter case this is likely to comprise persons whose schooling had ended before migrating to Australia.

In passing, it should be noted that age at leaving school and grade retention rates were generally fairly stable in the seventies. Retention of girls to Year 12 rose and that of boys fell in the mid-seventies, leaving the average Year 12 retention rate at about 35%. But this has been growing rapidly in recent years, reaching 45% in 1984. There could also be marked changes among different ethnic groups.

Table 4.1: Persons aged 15 to 19 by birthplace: percentage still attending school, Australia, June 1981 Census

Birthplace	Males %	Females %	Total persons aged 15-19 ('000s)
Australia	34.4	36.1	1,068
Overseas total	37.5	37.6	192
UK & Ireland	30.3	30.9	80
Greece	46.9	46.0	5
Italy	37.4	37.0	8
Yugoslavia	49.6	48.1	9
Lebanon	48.3	37.9	5
Indo-China	57.7	62.8	6

Source: ABS, Census of Population and Housing, 30 June 1981, based on data extracted by AIMA.

Table 4.1 gives no indication of the duration of residence in Australia of those born overseas. Nor does it provide any information on persons born in Australia whose parents were born overseas. Some other sets of data provide details on persons born in Australia by birthplace of parent. The most comprehensive, though not very detailed data, are those arising from the longitudinal study by Trevor Williams of the Australian Council for Educational

Research (ACER) and reported by Sturman (1985). They show a marked difference between persons born in a non-English-speaking country, or with fathers born in a non-English-speaking country, and persons with fathers born in Australia or in an English-speaking country. Some 47% of those with non-English-speaking backgrounds were still at school at age 17, compared with around 30% for those of English-speaking background. At age 18 some 37% were in full-time study compared to about 26% of Australian-born or migrants of English-speaking background. At age 19, some 24% were in full-time study compared to about 17% of the Australian-born and migrants of English-speaking background. On the other hand, young persons of non-English-speaking background had a lower involvement in full-time work and part-time study. The result is that, at ages 18 and 19, there was not a large difference among the groups in the total percentage engaged in some form of education, full-time or part-time. At ages 20 and 21, the differences become more marked again, reflecting the length of courses in higher education, especially at university, where the relatively high percentage of participants of non-English-speaking background is notable in Williams' sample cohort.

Table 4.2, constructed from 1981 census data, shows, by birthplace of parent, the proportion of the 15 to 19 age group born in Australia and still attending school. It confirms, for particular groups, some of the impressions of the Williams data. It shows a dramatically higher rate of retention at school for those with parents born in Greece, a much higher rate for those with parents born in Yugoslavia, and quite noticeably higher rates for those with parents born in Italy. Rates for those with parents born in Germany and, in this case, UK and Ireland were also higher than for those with Australian-born parents. Rates did not differ markedly by gender.

Table 4.2: Australian-born persons aged 15 to 19: number and percentage still attending school by parents' birthplace, Australia, June 1981 Census

	Numbers still attending			Total in age group			
Birthplace of parents	Father/ mother same b'place '000s	Father only mother born elsewhere '000s	Total still attending '000s	Father/ mother same b'place '000s	Father only mother born elsewhere '000s	Total '000s	% still attending
Males							
Australia	125.9	9.3	135.3	394.2	25.1	419.3	32.2
Ireland and UK	5.0	6.8	11.8	13.4	19.1	32.5	36.4
Greece	6.1	0.5	6.7	9.9	1.1	11.0	60.4
Italy	9.2	2.3	11.5	20.3	5.9	26.2	43.8
Yugoslavia	1.7	1.0	2.7	3.2	2.4	5.5	49.1
Females							
Australia	129.3	9.1	138.3	380.4	23.3	403.7	34.3
Ireland and UK	4.7	6.8	11.5	12.6	18.4	31.0	37.1
Greece	5.8	0.5	6.3	9.4	1.1	10.5	59.7
Italy	9.0	2.1	11.1	19.4	5.5	24.9	44.8
Yugoslavia	1.6	1.0	2.6	3.0	2.2	5.3	50.0

Source: ABS, Census of Population and Housing, 30 June 1981, Table 52 Microfiche (data extracted by R Birrell, Monash University)

Participation in schooling has been shown to vary by type of school: government, Catholic and other non-government. In 1983, the apparent rate of retention to the final school year of a cohort entering secondary school varied from about 34% for government schools to 51% for Catholic schools and to 93% for non-Catholic private schools. Part of the apparently high retention for non-Catholic private schools could be due to transfer from government schools, a factor on which adequate data are not available. Analysis by Trevor Williams of retention rates by school attended at age of 14 still shows marked differences: at age 17, some 83% of those at non-Catholic private schools, some 57% of those at Catholic schools, and 41% of those at government schools, were in full-time education. There is, too, wide variation within sectors - some government schools have very high retention rates, whereas others in economically deprived areas have very low rates.

It is well known that the social background of students at the high-fee, non-Catholic private schools is markedly different to that of those at Catholic and government schools. Anderson and Vervoon (1983: 81-83) review some of the data for the late 60s/early 70s. Anderson (1983) reports data from the on-going longitudinal study by Williams and these are drawn on for Table 4.3. The table confirms expectations but it also indicates that Catholic schools are somewhat dissimilar to government schools, with a considerable under-representation of manual, service and craft workers. The difference from government schools is confirmed by data on family income extracted from the 1976 Census by Williamson (1981), shown in Table 4.4. Nearly 60% of families with children at non-Catholic private schools had reported family incomes in excess of $15,000 in 1976, compared to a little over 25% for Catholic school families and 20% for government school families. At the other end, over 40% of government school families had incomes less than $9,000, compared to 33% for Catholic school families, and less than 20% for non-Catholic private school families.

These differences between Catholic schools and government schools in the socio-economic background of students may explain part of the differences in their retention rates. But Catholic schools also enrol a disproportionately high number of children from non-English-speaking backgrounds who, as we have seen, tend to stay at school longer than average.

Table 4.3: Father's occupation by type of school, 14-year-olds, Australia, 1975

	Government	Catholic	Other non-government
	%	%	%
Professional and managerial	21	34	64
Small business and clerical	21	24	18
Craft workers	25	17	11
Manual and service workers	34	25	7
Total	100	100	100

Source: D S Anderson (Chairman), Schools for the ACT, how public? how private? Vol. 1, ACPS, Canberra, 1983, p.21, based on data from Trevor Williams (ACER) longitudinal survey.

Table 4.4: School students by family income and type of school, Australia, 1976

Family income $'000s	Government schools %	Catholic schools %	Other denomin-ations %	Non-denomin-ational %	Total %
18 plus	9.6	13.9	46.1	45.2	11.8
15 to 18	10.0	11.9	13.7	12.8	10.4
12 to 15	16.3	18.3	12.4	12.7	16.5
9 to 12	22.5	22.8	10.9	11.1	22.1
7 to 9	18.2	15.6	6.7	6.6	17.3
5 to 7	12.3	9.8	4.1	3.9	11.5
less than 5	11.2	7.8	6.2	7.8	10.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ABS, 1976 Census of Population and Housing as reported by Denis Williamson, Some aspects of Australian demographic patterns which relate to Catholic schooling, Federal Catholic Education Office, Canberra, 1981.

Catholic schools enrol about 18% of all school pupils, but over 25% of those from non-English-speaking backgrounds. Three-quarters of all pupils attend government schools, including more than two-thirds of those from non-English-speaking backgrounds. The basis of these estimates is given in Table 4.5 which is taken from a survey of schools by the Department of Education and Youth Affairs (DEYA, 1984). Whereas 21% of students in government schools were either born in, or had one or both parents born in, a non-English-speaking country, the average figure was 23% for non-Catholic private schools and 34% for Catholic schools. A notable feature for non-Catholic private schools is the high proportion of lower primary and primary students from non-English-speaking backgrounds, and the low proportion at upper secondary level. However, the possibility of non-response bias, particularly in relation to the non-Catholic private schools, must be noted. For example, only 42% of non-Catholic private primary schools responded, compared to 55% of all schools. A 1980 survey by the Schools Commission, which achieved a much higher response rate, indicated slightly lower overall percentages from non-English-speaking backgrounds, but markedly lower levels for non-Catholic private schools (see Schools Commission 1981: Table 6.5). A summary is given in Table 4.6. However, it is also possible that parents from non-English-speaking countries have been to the forefront in the recent swing in enrolments towards non-government schools. This has taken the non-government share of total enrolments from a low in 1977 of about 21%, to 25% in 1984 (and non-government schools, while enrolling only 25% of all students, have about 33% of all students in Years 11 and 12, and about 36% of Year 12 alone).

The 1980 Schools Commission survey also showed very substantial differences between states. For example, in Catholic secondary schools in Victoria, 36% of students were of non-English-speaking background, compared to about 14% in

Queensland. Of all students in Victorian secondary schools, 26% were of non-English-speaking background compared to an estimated 9% in Queensland.

Table 4.5: All school students: English- or non-English-speaking background, system and level(a), Australia, 1983, in percentages

	Primary		Secondary		All
	lower	upper	lower	upper	levels(b)
Government					
Student born in a NESC(c)	4	4	6	9	5
Student born in an ESC(c), one or both parents born in a NESC(c)	15	16	15	17	16
Student and parents born in an ESC(c)	81	80	79	73	80
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Catholic					
Student born in a NESC(c)	5	5	6	8	6
Student born in an ESC(c), one or both parents born in a NESC(c)	29	28	28	23	28
Student and parents born in an ESC(c)	66	66	66	68	66
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Other					
Student born in a NESC(c)	5	6	5	8	6
Student born in an ESC(c), one or both parents born in a NESC(c)	24	20	15	12	17
Student and parents born in an ESC(c)	71	74	80	80	77
Total	100	100	100	100	100
All Schools					
Student born in a NESC(c)	4	5	6	9	5
Student born in an ESC(c), one or both parents born in a NESC(c)	19	19	18	18	18
Student and parents born in an ESC(c)	77	77	76	73	77
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: 1983 National Survey of Language Learning in Schools, Department of Education and Youth Affairs, forthcoming.

Notes: (a) Lower primary, year-levels K to 3; Upper primary, year-levels 4 to 6 or 7; Lower secondary, year-levels 7 or 8 to 10; Upper secondary, year-levels 11 and 12.
(b) Includes students reported as 'ungraded'.
(c) NESC: non-English-speaking country. ESC: English-speaking country (including Australia).

Table 4.6: Total enrolments, by type of school, and percentage from NESC, 1980 ('000s)

	Primary		Secondary		Total	
Government	1,508	16%	810	19%	2,318	17%
Catholic	322	31%	200	28%	522	30%
Other non-government	54	17%	90	11%	144	13%
Total	1,884	19%	1,100	20%	2,885	20%

Source: Derived from data in Schools Commission, Report for the triennium 1982-84, Canberra, March 1981, Table 6.5; and ABS, Schools Australia 1980 (Cat. 4202.0)

A survey in 1984 by the Australian Teachers' Federation (ATF) sought details on the use of languages other than English in the home. The ATF sample survey of government schools obtained a response rate of 77.7%. Table 4.7 shows that about 10% of students were from homes where English was not the main language spoken, which is about half the estimated numbers of students from non-English-speaking backgrounds.

Table 4.7: Students from homes where English is not main language, government schools ('000s)

	Primary	Secondary	Primary/ secondary	Total
Number	109	117	4	230
Percentage of all students	8%	13%	-	10%

Source: Derived from Australian Teachers' Federation, 1984 national survey of conditions in schools, July 1984, Table 11; and ABS, National schools statistics collection: government schools Australia, 1983 (Cat. 4215.0)

Further detail on language use in the home is contained in the recent Department of Education and Youth Affairs survey (DEYA 1984). It provided information not on the main language, as the ATF survey reported, but on what languages are spoken in the home. It showed that English only is spoken in about 32% of homes of students of non-English-speaking background; that English and another language are spoken in about 51% of their homes; and that no English is spoken in about 17% of homes, predominantly those homes where the student was born in a non-English-speaking country (see DEYA 1984: Table 3.18).

Staying on at school to age 17, or attendance at a particular type of school, are not necessarily indicators of advantage or disadvantage. In the early

seventies, for example, attention used to be drawn to the low retention rate of girls relative to that of boys, to Year 12 in schools, as an indication of disadvantage. However, the rapid increase in the girls' retention rate in the seventies did not necessarily mean that they were then advantaged: the increase to a considerable extent reflected the marked decline of teenage full-time jobs for girls, giving them little option but to remain in school.

Similarly, the high proportion of persons from non-English-speaking countries at school at age 17 needs care in interpretation. It does appear to reflect relatively high aspirations for both education and occupational status (Sturman 1985). However, it could also reflect their lesser school achievement requiring students to remain at school longer to achieve the same outcomes, or their experiencing greater difficulty than those of English-speaking background in obtaining teenage employment, especially in the skilled trades.

The high level of aspirations for education held by different students and their parents from different groups of non-English-speaking background has been reported in numerous studies (eg. Taft 1975 a and b, Blandy and Goldsworthy 1975, Turney et al. 1978). Anderson and Vervoon (1983: 97) note in discussing a series of Victorian studies involving Professor Taft:

> The occupational background distribution of students varied widely according to the national origins of their parents. Educational aspirations and eventual participation in post-secondary education also varied markedly. Contrary to what might be expected level of educational aspiration was much less closely related to occupational background in some national groups than others, with the result that a high level of educational aspiration appeared to be more a cultural trait than a function of occupational standing.

The relatively high aspirations of students of non-English-speaking background appeared most marked among those of working-class background. Only in small part could this be explained by 'disguised' middle-class migrants engaged in working-class occupations due to language or credentialling problems, or through discrimination.

The high aspirations were not always matched by high achievement. Williams (1980) while finding that students of non-English-speaking background tended to stay longer at school noted that, on average, they were slightly less likely to succeed in mastery tests administered by ACER particularly for literacy. Sturman (1985) reports studies showing migrant children to be older than the usual grade age, and in some instances more likely to repeat a school grade. But not all studies show lower achievements and there were marked variations among ethnic groups. Southern Italian- and Greek-born children were, however, often reported as achieving below average scores.

Persons born in non-English-speaking countries tend to suffer higher rates of unemployment than do the Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries. The unemployment rates are notably higher for the more recent groups of migrants - from Indo-China, Lebanon and Turkey. Sturman (1985) cites a number of studies that suggest that the impact of the prolonged recession since 1974 has affected migrants more than it has the Australian-born. However, evidence in the ABS Survey in 1982 of Reasons for Completion or Non-Completion of Secondary Education (Cat. No. 4214.0) suggests that difficulty in obtaining a job was a slightly less important reason for completion of schooling for overseas-born compared with Australian-born persons aged 14 to 20. However, most of the studies dealing with unemployment and education appear to concern persons born overseas. It is hoped that further analysis of 1981 Census data will give information on the unemployment experiences of first-generation Australian-born.

Higher education

On average students either born in or with one or more parents born in non-English-speaking countries, are more likely to participate in higher education. It is important to note, however, that there is considerable variation among ethnic groups.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics has produced some data on educational attendance by persons born in and outside Australia from its survey on transition from education to work. The information for 1983 is reproduced as Table 4.8. These data do not distinguish separate countries of birth for those born outside Australia. The table shows a slightly higher proportion of persons aged 15 to 24 born outside Australia engaged in education, compared to persons born in Australia, the most noticeable difference being for full-time university attendance.

For all persons with a father born in a non-English-speaking country the Williams cohort study, already discussed, shows a very much higher participation rate than for those of English-speaking background. But again it is not possible to disaggregate the data for separate ethnic groups. The most notable feature of Williams' data is the large differential between students of non-English-speaking background and those of English-speaking background, particularly in relation to attendance at universities. For example, at age 19, about 13% of respondents from non-English-speaking countries were in universities, compared to 7% of respondents of English-speaking background. About 7% of both groups were in CAEs.

Some light on participation in post-secondary education of specific ethnic groups is given by estimates of the percentage of the 20 to 24 and 25 to 29 age groups holding qualifications at the 1981 Census. Such data reflect enrolment patterns in the 1970s. Tables 4.9 and 4.10 present information for persons by country of birth and, for Austalian-born persons, information by place of birth of father.

A slightly higher percentage of Australian-born persons held degrees than did those born in other countries. However, a much higher percentage of those born in Lebanon and Indo-China held degrees, perhaps some of them acquired prior to arrival in Australia. (It cannot be presumed that overseas qualifications are recognised as equivalent to Australian degrees for employment purposes.) Relatively low percentages of those born in Greece, Italy, Malta and Yugoslavia held degrees. In contrast, among persons born in Australia but with fathers born overseas, a relatively high proportion of those with fathers born in Greece and Yugoslavia held degrees. Among the younger age group, 20 to 24, a higher than average percentage of those with fathers born in Italy held degrees. Overall, among Australian-born persons, a slightly higher proportion of those with fathers born overseas held degrees compared to those with fathers born in Australia.

The percentage of males and females in various ethnic groups holding degrees are shown in Tables 4.11 and 4.12. Overall, a higher proportion of males held degrees. The gap was smaller for the younger age group, reflecting increased female participation rates. It could also partly reflect a tendency for males to take longer courses.

The distribution of the percentage holding trade certificates by place of birth shows very low rates for Greece, Lebanon and Indo-China. Among those Australian-born with fathers born outside Australia, the rate was noticeably low for those with Greek-born fathers, a group which, as noted, had a high percentage with degrees.

Table 4.8: Percentage distribution of persons aged 15 to 24 years: educational institution attended in 1983* and country of birth

	Born in Australia			Born outside Australia			Total		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
Full-time at-									
School	18.9	18.7	18.8	18.6	16.9	17.8	18.8	18.4	18.6
University	3.3	3.1	3.2	7.9	4.3	6.1	4.0	3.3	3.7
CAE	1.7	2.4	2.0	*	*	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.5
TAFE	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.1
Other	*	0.7	0.5	*	*	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.5
Total	26.3	26.8	26.6	31.1	26.9	29.0	27.1	26.8	27.0
Part-time	12.2	6.2	9.2	13.2	6.3	9.8	12.3	6.2	9.3
Did not attend an institution in 1983	61.5	67.0	64.2	55.7	66.8	61.2	60.6	67.0	63.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total	1,093.2	1,055.7	2,148.9	212.0	209.2	421.3	1,305.5	1,264.9	2,570.2

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Social Indicators No.4 1984 (Cat. 4101.0) Table 4.30.

* in May 1983

Table 4.9: Qualifications by birthplace by age, Australia 1981, percentages*

Birthplace	Degree All persons 20-24	Degree All persons 25-29	Trade certificate Males only 20-24	Trade certificate Males only 25-29	Population 20-29
	%	%	%	%	'000s
Australia	4.9	8.5	22.4	22.5	1,915
UK and Eire	4.7	8.0	21.8	24.9	173
Netherlands	4.1	7.7	24.5	28.1	26
Greece	3.5	4.5	13.4	14.9	18
Italy	3.0	4.3	22.7	25.7	30
Malta	2.2	2.1	22.6	20.9	15
Yugoslavia	1.1	2.9	19.1	20.9	30
Lebanon	5.2	10.7	7.9	10.6	49
Indo-China	7.2	17.7	6.8	10.7	72
New Zealand	2.4	4.2	15.6	16.2	93
Total **	4.8	8.4	21.4	21.9	2,432

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1981 Census of Population and Housing, Cross Classified Characteristics Australia (2452.0) and data extracted from Tape MT048 by AIMA

* Percentage of group with qualifications
** Other overseas countries and a small number of persons born at sea or who have not stated their birthplace are included in the total.

Table 4.10: Qualifications of Australian-born by age by birthplace of father, Australia 1981, percentages*

Birthplace of father	Degree All persons 20-24	Degree All persons 25-29	Trade certificate Males only 20-24	Trade certificate Males only 25-29	Population 20-29
	%	%	%	%	'000s
Australia	4.8	8.3	22.7	22.6	1,583
UK and Eire	4.9	8.8	23.5	24.1	105
Netherlands	4.6	9.1	27.8	28.7	22
Greece	6.9	13.1	11.9	13.4	15
Italy	5.2	7.7	21.6	24.6	55
Malta	1.8	2.5	29.1	33.1	10
Yugoslavia	5.5	9.9	19.8	21.2	10
New Zealand	7.7	13.0	17.9	20.0	6
Total **	4.9	8.5	22.4	22.5	1,915

Source: 1981 Census Tape MT048 as extracted by AIMA

* Percentage of group with qualifications
** Total includes all other countries of fathers' birth and not stated. Lebanon and Indo-China are not separately identified because of the small population aged 20-29 with fathers born in those countries: Lebanon 2,000 and Indo-China virtually nil.

Table 4.11: Percentage of 20-24 and 25-29 age groups with degree, by birthplace and gender, Australia 1981

Birthplace	20-24 Males	20-24 Females	25-29 Males	25-29 Females
Australia	5.1	4.7	10.1	6.9
UK and Eire	4.9	3.8	9.4	6.6
Netherlands	4.0	4.2	8.3	7.0
Greece	3.0	4.1	6.2	2.9
Italy	3.3	2.5	5.7	2.9
Malta	2.5	1.9	2.8	1.2
Yugoslavia	2.1	1.8	3.8	2.1
Lebanon	5.5	5.0	12.9	8.6
Indo-China	7.1	7.2	20.3	15.6
New Zealand	2.7	2.1	4.8	3.5

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1981 Census of Population and Housing, Cross Classified Characteristics Australia (2452.0) and data extracted from Tape MT048 by AIMA

Table 4.12: Percentage of Australian-born 20-24 and 25-29 age groups with degree, by gender and birthplace of father

Birthplace of father	20-24 Males	20-24 Females	25-29 Males	25-29 Females
Australia	4.9	4.6	9.8	6.8
UK and Eire	4.9	4.9	10.3	7.4
Netherlands	5.0	4.2	10.8	7.3
Greece	6.8	7.0	17.0	9.2
Italy	5.8	4.6	10.4	4.8
Malta	2.4	1.2	3.5	1.5
Yugoslavia	5.2	5.9	11.1	8.4
New Zealand	7.5	5.9	15.3	10.9

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1981 Census of Population and Housing, Cross Classified Characteristics Australia (2452.0) and data extracted from Tape MT048 by AIMA

As mentioned, the aspirations of ethnic groups for higher education are reported in several studies to be much higher than for the Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries. However, while their overall participation rates were also higher, up to the mid-'70s at least, the difference was 'nowhere near as large as the difference in aspirations found by Taft and others' (Anderson and Vervoon 1983: 107).

These earlier studies reviewed by Anderson and Vervoon (1983) also suggest a greater proportion in college than the Williams study. Anderson and Vervoon (1983: 100) commented

> That a lower proportion of non-English European students than English-speaking students entered university, despite having indicated while at school at least as much aspiration as the latter group did to study at university, suggests that a significant number had to settle for a CAE because their matriculation results were not high enough to win a place at university.

It is worth noting that the late '70s, the period relevant for Williams' cohort born in 1961, were times of relatively 'easy access' to higher education compared to the '60s and early '70s, and the emerging stringency of the mid-'80s. It may be that the students of non-English-speaking background in Williams' cohort could realise their aspirations more fully than could those seeking entry both before and after them (see also Anderson 1985).

With the exception of the most prestigious courses, there is some indication that the entry score for higher education declined in the late '70s. Students leaving school appeared to turn away from higher education, making it easier for those with high educational aspirations but relatively poor school results to enter higher education. A detailed discussion of the changes of enrolments in higher education is given in Learning and earning (CTEC 1982). The decline in the entry of students direct from school appears to be explicable by the decline in the availability of student assistance, and by the perceived decline in expected earnings from higher education relative to, for instance, apprenticeship. The virtual abolition of teachers' scholarships was the major factor in the decline in student assistance, though the Tertiary Education Assistance Scheme also eroded somewhat in real terms and the family income test for assistance under it became somewhat harsher. The apparent increase in the proportion of students of non-English-speaking background in higher education at that time could, in part, be due to the relatively greater willingness of their parents to support them (Beswick et al. 1983).

However, demand for full-time places in higher education by school leavers has revived strongly since 1982. The recent increase in rates of school retention will lead to further increases in demand for higher education in the rest of the '80s (Burke 1984). It appears there will be insufficient growth in places in higher education to meet the demands. CTEC (1984) estimated that an annual growth in intake of over 2,000 was the minimum necessary. The Commonwealth Guidelines (1984) provided for an increase of 1,300 in 1985.

If Anderson and Vervoon's finding - that many students from non-English-speaking backgrounds have more marginal results in their final school year - still holds, such students could feel disproportionately the effects of the lack of places in higher education that seems likely to eventuate.

Anderson et al. (1980) reviewed the distribution of students by faculty and type of institution. Ethnic groups in the studies reviewed were, as already mentioned, over-represented in CAEs, but this was concentrated in metropolitan CAEs: they were very much under-represented in country colleges. Students of European background were in notably higher proportion in engineering and science departments in the colleges. In both colleges and universities they were in somewhat low proportions in education and in universities in medicine.

Structure and finance of education

Funding

The future participation of ethnic groups in education can be affected by policy, for example: on funding of education in total and its distribution by

type of institution; on programs for the disadvantaged; on curriculum and credentials; and on student assistance. This section describes some aspects of actual or recently proposed policy affecting the education system.

Government schools, other than for minor 'voluntary' fees, are fully funded by governments. State governments manage the funds, over 90% of which come from their general revenue. About 6% of general recurrent funds, and about half of capital building funds for government schools, have come in recent years via Commonwealth Schools Commission recommendations. The Commonwealth also provides funds for a number of special programs in schools, separately discussed below.

After several years in which Commonwealth funds for government schools remained virtually constant, the 1984/85 budget provided for an increase in recurrent funds in 1985, and a promise to continue increasing the funds for a period of eight years: until the Commonwealth's share of a target level rises from about 5% to 8%.

Non-government schools receive, on average, well over half of their funds from governments. The large majority of Catholic schools receive the maximum Commonwealth and State grants for pupils in non-government schools, recently about 60% of the recurrent cost per pupil of government schools. These schools tend to operate at about 70% of the apparent average resources of government schools, raising therefore only a small percentage of their resources from fees and contributions.

A few of the Catholic schools, and many other non-government schools, operate at higher levels of resources. They receive less Commonwealth funds per pupil, and in some states less state funding, and raise substantially more through fees which, in many instances, now exceed $4,000 per annum.

Funds per school student grew at a very fast rate in the '70s (Burke 1983). Apparent resources in government schools grew by 90%, while pupil numbers rose about 7%. In part, however, the resource increase was an illusion in that incremental creep - the additional salary increment accruing to teachers after each year of employment - absorbed some of the increase. Also, declining enrolments in primary schools since 1979 gave rise to diseconomies, in the short term at least, implying a need for additional resources per pupil just to maintain standards. Primary enrolments are projected to grow from 1988, when secondary will decline somewhat. Still, staffing ratios improved by about 40%, a remarkable increase in a decade.

Under the Commonwealth Financial Guidelines (1984) the low resource non-government schools will receive progressively more Commonwealth funds over the next eight years, rising from about 35% to 45% of a community standard as estimated by the Schools Commission.* This is a substantially larger increase than that promised to government schools. Highest resource non-government schools will receive at least the same real funds as in 1984. Schools in between will receive increases on a sliding scale.

Since 1974, the universities and Colleges of Advanced Education have been fully funded by the Commonwealth Government. Real funds per student have not altered

* In 1983-84 the Commonwealth Schools Commission carried out a study of desirable resource standards for Australian schools. It proposed a basic set of standards which, at December 1983 prices, would cost $2,195 per primary school pupil and $3,240 per secondary student (Commonwealth Schools Commission 1984).

significantly over much of the period (Burke 1983) but due to 'incremental creep' there has been a recent worsening of staffing ratios. In the early to mid-'70s there was a rapid increase in enrolments. As already mentioned, demand for full-time places slackened in the late '70s but recently increased strongly. Funding increases are being made, but only to about two-thirds of the average cost of existing places per student. The Commonwealth sought advice from CTEC on the use of new technologies and other ways of increasing provision without increasing expenditure, but has been advised that there are few economies to be achieved in the short term.

Provision of places in TAFE is largely a state matter, though the Commonwealth provides part of the funds - a substantial part for capital expenditure. The suggested growth in TAFE enrolments reported by CTEC (1984) was not fully supported by Commonwealth funds. In any case, the projected growth may prove too small in relation to the growing number of Years 11 and 12 school enrolments.

Major programs for disadvantaged students: schools

States, from their general revenue, make a range of provision for groups seen to be disadvantaged. These are not well documented, whereas the allocations by the Commonwealth Government are. The most relevant Commonwealth program for this study is the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program - so-called from 1982. Details of funds allocated are provided in the Commonwealth Schools Commission Report for 1985 (1984). Funds under the program are directed mainly to general support for educational authorities to improve the English language competence of students of non-English-speaking background ($55 million in 1983) and for intensive programs for newly arrived students with limited or no English language skills ($12 million in 1983). The allocation of funds takes account of estimates of students of non-English-speaking background in different systems. The allocation of about 1% of ESL funds to non-Catholic private schools appears to be much smaller than their share of such students in the most recent survey (Education and Youth Affairs 1984). But, as already mentioned, the estimates for this sector may be biased, and in any case it may include overseas students temporarily resident in Australia.

Campbell et al. (1984) consider the achievements of the program, but they note that about a third of schools which have students from non-English-speaking countries have no specialist teachers under ESL programs. They suggest an increase of 15% to 30% in ESL teachers is required. They also suggest (1984: Ch. 7) a range of ways in which they believe the program could be improved, though they conclude that it is making a significant contribution to the education of students of non-English-speaking background.

A small amount of funds is also provided by the Commonwealth to promote multiculturalism in schools, including support for the teaching of community languages, and some assistance to part-time ethnic schools.

The overall program is discussed by the Schools Commission (1981: Chapter 5) and a review of ethnic schools was published in 1983 (Commonwealth Schools Commission 1983).

The Disadvantaged Schools Program, which provides 'Supplementary Grants' for particular schools, was established as a result of the Karmel Report (Schools in Australia, 1973). It provides additional funds on the basis of projects devised by selected schools where there is a large concentration of students from low income backgrounds. The program aims to raise skills, to make the curriculum more interesting and relevant, and to involve parents and the

community. For a school to be eligible to apply for funds under the Program it must be located in a district assessed to be disadvantaged on a socio-economic scale constructed by the Schools Commission (1981: Chapter 13 and Appendix 111). Major indicators of socio-economic disadvantage include: low education levels of the population; low income; low living standards, such as lack of motor vehicles; social factors, such as proportion of single-parent families; and cultural differences, such as a high proportion of students of non-English-speaking background.

Overall, it appears that many students of non-English-speaking background are in schools receiving funds under the Disadvantaged Schools Program as well as under the ESL program. It is notable that Victoria, with a high proportion of its population from non-English-speaking countries, receives a relatively large share of funds under the Disadvantaged Schools Program. However, it should be noted that the total funds under the Disadvantaged Schools Program is only a little more than half that provided for ESL. However, state authorities do make additional provision from their own general revenues for schools seen to have special needs. The amount allocated is not estimable at present, but probably far exceeds that allocated under the Disadvantaged Schools Program. It mainly takes the form of additional allocation of teachers.

The most recent major special program of the Schools Commission is the Participation and Equity Program (PEP) which replaced the Transition Program. In 1985 PEP received an allocation of $79 million, of which $45 million was for schools, and $34 million for TAFE. However, funds for 1986 have been cut as a result of the Commonwealth's review of expenditure in May 1985. The school allocation is concentrated in secondary schools with low rates of retention to Years 11 and 12. The major objective is to develop school programs so that they provide for those students who find the existing programs oriented to higher education wanting. Major objectives have been outlined by the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1983b) and developments to late 1984 are considered by Pettit (1984). Details of schools and funding have not yet been analysed, but it appears likely that a considerable proportion of the ethnic groups concentrated in socio-economically disadvantaged areas attend schools receiving benefits under PEP.

Curriculum: schools

Developments in the curriculum to increase its relevance to students are being fostered under the programs for Multiculturalism, Disadvantaged Schools and PEP. There are also reviews taking place at both Commonwealth and state levels of the overall functioning of schools. The Commonwealth appointed a Quality of Education Review Committee in August 1984 which reported on a wide range of matters in April 1985. In Victoria, a Ministerial Review of Postcompulsory Schooling, headed by Mrs Jean Blackburn, presented its final report early in 1985, on structures, curricula and credentials for students beyond Year 10 of schooling. The establishment of comprehensive upper secondary institutions, of a broader curriculum for all students, and of credentials based on achievement rather than competitive rank, have been suggested.

In Western Australia, a review of schooling chaired by Mr Kim Beazley has been released, and in NSW a review by Mr Doug Swan (Director-General) and Dr Ken McKinnon has been published. In Western Australia, a committee headed by Professor Barry McGaw has recommended an alternative assessment for HSC. Summaries of these reports are provided in Youth studies abstracts (1984: vol. 3, no. 4).

Student assistance: schools

Assistance for students is reviewed in DEYA (1983) and in Income support for young people (1984). The major form of assistance to school students is the Secondary Allowances Scheme (SAS) provided by the Commonwealth Government. SAS now provides some assistance (up to $1202 per annum in 1985) for about a quarter of all secondary school students in Years 11 and 12. The value of the allowance, while still low, has been increased very substantially since 1981, and the stringency of its income test on parents has been eased considerably.

The income test was, until recently, so severe that in an evaluation of the scheme in 1979, based on students in Year 10, about half the recipients came from one-parent families (Meade 1982). Meade's study for Queensland, and in Sydney, showed that a marginally higher proportion of children of non-English-speaking background were in receipt of SAS allowances. The considerable increase in value and coverage of the SAS since 1981 does mean that the early evaluation may now be of little relevance. An evaluation for the Department of Education and Youth Affairs was under way in 1984.

Special programs: higher education

Special programs for the disadvantaged in higher education have not been of significance. The Labor Government, elected in 1983, introduced the Participation and Equity Program with its main impact in schools and in funding TAFE courses for the young long-term unemployed (previously covered by the Transition Program and the Educational Program for Unemployed Youth). In higher education, an amount of $1 million has been set aside (out of a total higher education budget of $2100 million in 1985) to assist in promoting access by disadvantaged groups. Perhaps of greater impact is the only slightly veiled threat that institutions which are not seen to be catering for groups with disadvantages may find their share of total funds reduced. It is not clear what impact this will have on enrolments by students from non-English-speaking countries.

Curriculum and courses: higher education

The Commonwealth Government, in its concern for the restructuring of industry in Australia, has directed that any growth in places of higher education be in management, science and technologies. This is not likely to disadvantage students of non-English-speaking background. But in any case, with marginal funding it is going to be difficult for institutions to expand their places in science and technologies as these are relatively expensive to provide (CTEC 1984b).

Student assistance: tertiary education

In higher education and approved full-time TAFE courses, the major form of financial assistance is the Tertiary Education Assistance Scheme (TEAS) provided by the Commonwealth Government. The maximum living-at-home allowance was $2,321 (in 1985) and $3,581 for independent students or those living away from home.

Student assistance eroded in value in the late '70s. A principal factor was the virtual elimination of teachers' scholarships which had been a major source of funding, especially for country students and females. As noted earlier, students of non-English-speaking background were relatively under-represented

in teacher education in the early '70s, so were perhaps not so severely affected by these cutbacks. The TEAS scheme, as documented by Education and Youth Affairs (1983a: Table 5.4) eroded in value over a considerable period The 10% increase in its nominal value for 1985 made only marginal restoration of its real value, which remains below the level of the late '70s.

Access by students of non-English-speaking background to TEAS is not well documented. The study by Beswick et al. (1983) indicated a slightly higher proportion of such students were living at home on TEAS allowances. They also found, incidentally, a greater willingness among their parents to provide financial support for their tertiary student children, and that parents of non-English-speaking background made fewer complaints about financial difficulties in supporting tertiary students. As mentioned earlier, this may be a factor in the apparently high proportion of students of non-English-speaking background participating in higher education at a time when financial assistance was relatively poor.

The Participation and Equity Program, which subsumed the Transition Program from the beginning of 1984, does provide allowances for students in TAFE 'Transition' and 'EPUY' courses for young people who have experienced prolonged unemployment. The allowance is equal to unemployment benefit plus $6 per week.

MIGRANTS' ACCESS TO TAFE

As in some other programs, migrants have access to TAFE either through courses for the general public, or through courses specifically for migrants. The latter are usually provided if governments feel barriers hinder or prevent migrant access to the former, or if general courses are unlikely to assist migrants with specific needs.

This section of the report looks at:

- the structures of some of the special routes into TAFE or through TAFE into other educational, employment or other activities
- the extent and limitations of data collection in the evaluation of the effectiveness of policies related to migrant access to TAFE
- what the actual data describe, and
- what conclusions the existing data allow to be drawn.

The new role for TAFE in migrant and ESL education

In general an extensive migrant education program in TAFE has been in operation for less than two years. Until 1983, state provision of courses specifically for migrants varied considerably - ranging from transition courses and part-time evening courses in literacy and basic skills to full-time language training for migrants for specific purposes. In the main, provision was limited.

Mid-1982 marked the initiation of a radical change in the adult migrant education provisions. As a result of Recommendation 18 of the Evaluation of post-arrival programs and services (AIMA 1982), the Commonwealth Government transferred the funding and provision of ESP (English for Specific Purpose) courses from the AMEP, conducted by the Commonwealth Department of Immigration

and Ethnic Affairs, to TAFE. An arbitrary decision was made to divide the client population into those who did and those who did not reach above Scale 2 on the Australian Second Language Proficiency Rating (ASLPR), that is those who supposedly did and those who did not have a 'minimum' vocational level of competence in English. Specific purpose courses for the former were to be provided through TAFE, and basic English for the latter through the Australian Migrant Education Service (AMES), the operational arm of AMEP. This new structure effectively came into operation from the beginning of 1983, with Commonwealth funding for TAFE programs being provided through the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission (CTEC) on an annual program funding basis.

The objectives of the program, as recommmended by the TAFE Council, (CTEC 1984: Vol. 1 Part 5: 104) and endorsed by Government, are:

. to increase English proficiency to a level where a migrant seeking to obtain training can achieve entry into courses in TAFE or other post-secondary institutions

. to help migrants who may already have skills develop an adequate command of English for occupational purposes and/or obtain recognition of their overseas qualifications.

In addition to providing funds for expanded course provision, CTEC has also aimed to help foster:
. the development and organisation of course materials and equipment
. curricular development, and
. staff development.

The movement of the ESP program to TAFE has been controversial, and though some State TAFE departments have responded extensively and quickly, others have been hesitant.

The rationale behind Recommendation 18 itself is praiseworthy. The Institute was concerned that, because funding of courses was located in AMEP, many migrants sufficiently proficient in English to handle specifically vocational courses were still being provided with only general English courses. By shifting part of the AMES funding to TAFE, it was intended to encourage the mainstreaming of migrants either in TAFE or other tertiary courses, or to provide ESL courses around specifically vocational content. This has been occurring to some extent, though the program has only been operating a short time. However, there have been some negative effects on AMEP, and there are some constraints on the operation of the TAFE program.

In terms of the overall level of funds being provided to AMEP to conduct English language courses, the relative reduction of its Commonwealth funds from the transfer of specific purpose funds to TAFE was small. TAFE in Victoria, for example, received $1 million in 1983 and $1 million in 1984 from the Commonwealth, whereas AMEP has received an annual budget in Victoria of about $12 million. The impact on AMEP was through prohibition upon the funding of courses in advanced English, rather than the cut in funds. This caused AMEP to stop funding some innovative courses taking place in higher education institutions, such as the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology. The cessation of funding for such courses and their staff must be weighed against the potential gains in the transfer of funds to TAFE.

Certain constraints have also operated within the TAFE system which have prevented it from being able to accommodate the new demands thrust upon it quickly and flexibly. For example, CTEC has been made aware of the reservations some of the State TAFE authorities have had concerning:

- the principle involved in the Commonwealth specifying a priority use of Particular Program Grants which, traditionally, had been allocated according to state priorities

- the possible diversion of funds from services being provided for other disadvantaged groups

- the need for the Commonwealth to provide additional funds for its new priority.

As a result of these reservations, the TAFE Council advised, and the Government accepted, the establishment of a new category of funding, Special Purpose Grants, in 1984. These were to include provision of courses under the TAFE Advanced English Program.

Other concerns which have arisen at a central level in the administration of the Advanced English Programs are:

- the difficulty of determining the extent of the demand for such courses and the expectations of potential participants

- the shortage of qualified teachers and Australian teaching materials

- the importance of appropriate allowances for course applicants.

Another obvious concern is the actual amount and continuity of funding of the program. The ESL program through CTEC is a very small program, and the CTEC has felt hesitant about the level of pressure it can bring to bear on the states to commit themselves to it.

Apart, perhaps, from New South Wales, the states have treated migrant education as a fairly peripheral program. For instance, the annual rather than permanent budgeting of funds, as well as the small amounts budgeted, has restricted severely the staffing and planning of programs. The current problems are reminiscent of those experienced under the Commonwealth Transition Program in its early years. In some states, the success of the program tends to depend very much on the chance location of persons with interest and dedication in colleges, while the development and morale of program staff, in the face of poor and uncertain funding, often tends to be low.

Yet, in spite of these constraints, there is some attempt at both national and state level to advance migrant education, not just through a narrow ESL program but through a broad multicultural education policy. New South Wales has begun to implement a policy for TAFE. Victoria will release such a policy by the end of 1984, and Western Australia could begin to develop one in 1985.

Rather symbolically, TAFE migrant education, the Victorian TAFE Board's newsletter on migrant education, changed its name with its eleventh issue (May/June 1984) to TAFE multicultural education. The editors remarked '...it is now time for a title that reflects Victorian TAFE's growing involvement in multicultural education and related issues'. There is a strong feeling at both grass-roots and state management levels that programs catering only for English language needs are not able adequately to serve the needs of more than a small minority of migrants, and that broader approaches are needed to increase the participation of migrants in general education, both in TAFE and elsewhere (Endear and Thomas 1984).

As data have not been collected from all state and tertiary TAFE authorities, however, one cannot say what plans the rest of the Australian TAFE authorities

might have in this direction. In general, the policy of state authorities has been to direct the provision of ESL courses away from general English and move it more towards access and vocational programs, or into further studies in mainstream TAFE and other tertiary institutions.

Details on the programs in New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia and Queensland are provided in Appendix 1.

Sources of data on migrants in TAFE

There is a persistent lack of statistical data on migrants' demand for, and use of, Australian educational facilities, whether those of TAFE or those of other institutions. However, as the following quotations illustrate, the continuance of this dearth of data is not due to any lack of expression of the need for such data.

> We also saw a need to have better information available for planning programs and assessing their effectiveness, both in the teaching of English and multicultural education, and we recommend the establishment of a Commonwealth-State working-party to advise on arrangements for collecting and analysing such information (Galbally Report 1978: 1.22).
>
> ...we recommend...an extensive survey by the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs of the needs for English of the various migrant groups (Galbally Report 1978: 1.24).
>
> No judgment of the effectiveness of programs funded by government can be made nor can the development of programs in future be adequately carried out unless relevant, accurate and up-to-date information is made available to bodies responsible for policy and action. Such information is not readily and consistently available to the Commonwealth co-ordinating body (the Schools Commission) from the various government and non-government school authorities (Galbally Report 1978: 40).

Four to six years later, a lack of data was still being reported.

For example, it was reported in 1982 in the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs evaluation of the Galbally projects:

> A shortage of adequate information on the English-language needs of migrants continues to inhibit evaluation and planning in the longer term. This has made it difficult to assess the impact the program has made upon the backlog of those needing further English-language tuition (AIMA 1982: 14).

The setting up of better counselling services for migrants, for example, is constrained by the lack of data available for counsellors.

> How can they realistically assess students' backgrounds, their capacities, as well as how well their qualifications suit Australian standards without performance data on migrants currently in the workforce? (Endear and Thomas 1984).

At the end of December 1983, Rod Grant, President of the Victorian Association of Teachers of English Speakers of Other Languages, commented that:

> Problem number one...is difficulty in obtaining information about courses. Nowhere in Melbourne, nowhere, is there a complete list of courses on offer, currently and in the near future...Secondly... nowhere is there any central registry of students who wish to join a course, or of their needs. Without at least some attempt to do this how can we know what courses are needed, and where, and by how many students? (Grant 1983).

The Ethnic Liaison Officer Working Party of the Commonwealth Department of Education and Youth Affairs proposed as late as 1983 that the relevant Commonwealth and State Authorities develop an accurate and co-ordinated data base to keep, plan and implement ESL programs focused on the needs of new arrivals (Education and Youth Affairs 1983b).

The statistical data available

In the absence of good survey data, much of the evidence concerning the educational system's deficiencies in meeting the needs of ethnic communities is anecdotal.

For example:

> The most convincing evidence that this has been - and to a considerable extent still is - the situation of large numbers of children of non-English-speaking background comes not from performance data or age-grade retention (although both offer confirmation) but from the scattered and mostly unheeded observations and pleas of teachers and a few others, such as counselling staff and now more recently the migrant communities themselves, moved to speak out by their present knowledge of these children and their schools (Martin 1976: 61-2).

In a study in 1981, which included Northern Melbourne, an area of migrant concentration, Davis and Woodburne (1981) also found that the statistical evidence of under-representation of migrants was not as graphic as the personal observations given by the teachers.

The data sources used in this paper for giving some indication of migrants' demand for the use of facilities in TAFE comprise:

- those available at Commonwealth Government level
- those available at state government level, and
- research study sources.

Sources at Commonwealth Government level

More effort seems to have been made in recent years by school than by TAFE authorities to compile data at a national level. For example, as a result of the Galbally Recommendation No. 4 the Commonwealth/States Working Party on Data Collection on Students was established in December 1978, and data on schools were collected. The working party comprised representatives of the Commonwealth Department of Education; the Schools Commission; the Curriculum Development Centre; State/Territory Departments of Education; Catholic and Independent Schools systems; the Australian Teachers' Federation; the Australian Bureau of Statistics; and the Australian Ethnic Affairs Council. The Working Party initiated one national survey of students born in non-English-speaking countries in 1980, but has not met since the survey's completion. However, the Department of Education and Youth Affairs carried out a further survey in 1983, reported earlier in this paper.

TAFE authorities, on the other hand, though expressing the need for better statistics (CTEC 1984:I.5, 105-6) for planning purposes have not initiated any action for a national survey either on a one-off or on a continuous basis.

Existing TAFE national sources on migrant use of TAFE consist of a 1975 survey by the Commonwealth Department of Education, published in 1978, and current DEYA collections of data on numbers of immigrants receiving allowances for

attending full-time TAFE ESL classes. The first source is dated, and the second does not provide comprehensive data on student numbers, either by course type or whether migrants were in full- or part-time ESL classes.

Also, there are no data from these sources for estimating to what degree certain barriers to participation by migrants may cause their enrolments to fall below the level of their real need. An extra financial barrier to participation was created in mid-1983 when a means test was introduced for the allowances. The introduction of this test may particularly affect migrant women with young children, who might have been using the allowance to pay for child-minding while they attended the classes. However, without data one can only speculate on the impact.

The matter of collecting statistics by place of birth has been raised by the Joint Committee on TAFE Statistics as recently as October 1984, but no decision was made to go ahead with the matter. Although reasons for not doing so were not officially given, at least four would seem to apply. The first is that the data could be considered 'sensitive' by students, and that a high proportion might not answer the question of place of birth on their enrolment form. The second relates to the length of enrolment data forms and the felt need to keep such forms simple and short. The third concerns the relationship between the Commonwealth and states. It has been said that some states would feel concerned over possible Commonwealth uses of information which they collect but for which they themselves had no immediate use. The fourth concerns possible industrial implications. For example, teachers conducting ESL classes in the Australian Capital Territory have already refused, on the ground of invasion of privacy, to collect information from students on place of birth.

Sources at State Government level

The extent and quality of solid statistical data in TAFE varies by state.

In Victoria the lack of data is frequently mentioned, and one of the terms of reference of the Working Party of the TAFE Board, currently developing a multicultural education policy for TAFE, includes an instruction to find out ways of compiling an adequate statistical data base. Though the colleges like to maintain their regional independence there seems to be general agreement over the need for additional centralised statistical collections.

In the meantime, the Victorian TAFE Board has appointed an ESL project officer at its Vocational Orientation Centre to:

- gather together available information about all ESL courses offered through TAFE
- make recommendations about how users can be informed of programs and referred to those most appropriate to their needs.

The New South Wales Department of TAFE would seem to be the only Australian TAFE department with published data on numbers of migrants participating in the TAFE system generally. Usually, data from other states only refer to the number of participants in special programs such as ESL.

The two principal sources of New South Wales TAFE student data derive from a question on the enrolment form on the most common language spoken at home and from a 'one-off' survey of ESL students carried out in 1983. A problem with the enrolment data is that an unknown number of the students reporting their home language as other than English were English-speaking and were born in

Australia. Hence the data are not comparable with the ABS data on population born in non-English-speaking countries, or on population with parents born in non-English-speaking countries. Authors of the New South Wales TAFE report Multiculturalism: TAFE's response (Caldwell et al. 1984) therefore recommend that the revised student enrolment form incorporate questions on country of birth and on year of arrival, as well as the present questions on the language most commonly spoken at home.

The New South Wales TAFE enrolment data also have the limitation that the breakdown by language spoken at home is only in terms of English or non-English. The information on what language was spoken if the language were not English, though asked for and collected, has not been coded and, as a consequence, has not been released.

Data from other state authorities on participation of migrants in TAFE all tend to be in reference to ESL programs. The Queensland TAFE migrant education program operates through the South Brisbane College of TAFE, and data available on migrants in TAFE primarily refer to the special migrant program located in, or being developed from, this college.

Data on the Western Australian TAFE program have been made available in progress reports from the Advanced English Program within TAFE in the Department of Education but, again, only in respect of special programs.

Northern Territory and Tasmania both report not having any data suitable for evaluative purposes, although the Tasmanian respondent reports a need for developmental evaluation of planned programs. Data for this report were not collected from South Australia or the ACT.

In addition to their provision of data on number of persons of non-English-speaking background in TAFE courses, New South Wales authorities have provided one-off data on the occupational and/or student status of migrant students in their country of origin and in Australia at the time of their course. Queensland sources have provided some data on umemployment levels of student participants in ESL courses, while certain Victorian TAFE colleges have provided transition data on students who have left the ESL course.

Research study sources

The researchers were surprised by the apparent lack of research being conducted outside TAFE on migrant access to TAFE. The Centre for Research in Education and Work (CREW) has not carried out specific research on migrant access to TAFE, although in its field investigations on the participation of youth and the general population in TAFE programs, it usually has included a question on place of birth of respondents and their parents. Even the collection of data on migrant access to TAFE at this peripheral level does not seem to be a common practice. Discussion of ethnic groups in TAFE in the Anderson and Vervoon (1983) review, for example, is noticeable by its paucity, and no studies on the subject, other than the previously mentioned 1975 Commonwealth Department of Education survey, are reported in the recent review by Sturman (1985). A literature search carried out by CREW also failed to uncover any significant work.

The researchers presume, therefore, that the CREW analysis of place of birth of respondents in its studies of TAFE programs forms a major part of the little work that has been done in this area by organisations or researchers outside TAFE. Some of the CREW research is of relevance to the study of access to TAFE education in the area of trade education, and a special analysis of the data

has been carried out for this reason. However, the research is very much confined to special facets of access, and could be specific to the location and time of the surveys.

Obviously there is a lack of comprehensive independent research on migrant access to TAFE and more needs to be done.

Data: a final point

Data on migrants' needs and on their access to education sometimes contradict themselves, as well as being deficient in extent and depth of coverage. In 1980, for example, the Schools Commission reported that 575,900 persons (about 20% of the total school population) were born in non-English-speaking countries; 400,000 of these were in government schools. In contrast, in 1982, the Australian Teachers' Federation estimated only 296,000 were in government schools (see Campbell et al. 1984:10).

Uncertainty and debate also exist over the actual number of overseas-born who need to learn English. For example, in its 1978 report Participation, the Ethnic Affairs Commission of NSW estimated 300,000 migrants in Australia, and 100,000 in New South Wales, as not fluent in English or speaking only 'fair to poor' English. The Galbally Report gave 300,000 as the number needing English language instruction, while a study by the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs cited in AIMA (1982) gave a larger number of 525,000 persons possessing less than survival skills in four areas of English language competency. However, in contrast, the 1983 ABS language survey of persons in Australia, requested by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts, estimated only 65,800 persons not using English, and 47,100 not understanding it, although it did not survey the level of competency in English of those of non-English-speaking background claiming to use English.

A paper by the Ethnic Affairs Commission (1984a) makes a creditable attempt to reconcile the discrepancies between these estimates, using data from the 1981 Census. However, as Price (1983) points out, the credibility that can be given to the upper and lower estimates of numbers in different ethnic groups requiring ESL support has planning connotations, not only for direction of program development, but also political implications relating to the amounts of funding.

Ethnic profile of TAFE students

While the most detailed recent data source on migrants in TAFE is that of the New South Wales Department of TAFE, the most recent source prior to this would seem to have been the Commonwealth Department of Education survey of 1975. The relevant data from this survey are reported in Table 4.13. Other comparative data, either prior, subsequent or parallel to the time of the New South Wales report are hard to find.

CREW, carrying out studies of participation in TAFE, frequently asked participants their own and their parents' country of birth, and some of the data from these questions are included in this section. Also, a small amount of data on the employment status of participants in particular courses are available from Victorian and Queensland sources.

Unfortunately, the data from these sources are not always comparable. For example, subjects in the 1975 survey are classified by country of birth, whether Australia or other than Australia, (and if the latter, whether English-

Table 4.13: Ethnic backgrounds of TAFE students, percentages[a]

	Born in Australia	Born in other English-speaking countries	Born in non-English-speaking countries	Number
Students				
Male	82.0	9.0	9.0	313,700
Female	82.8	10.5	6.7	159,000
Persons	82.3	9.5	8.2	472,900
Fathers of students				
Male students	69.1	15.1	15.8	b
Female students	71.6	17.6	10.8	b
All students	69.9	15.9	14.2	b
Mothers of students				
Male students	72.2	12.8	15.0	b
Female students	74.2	16.0	9.8	b
All students	72.9	13.8	13.3	b

Source: Education (1978:9, 10)
Notes: a Percentages are derived from a sample of the total TAFE population.
b Information concerning fathers and mothers was obtained from the students.

or non-English-speaking). The New South Wales TAFE data, however, are classified by principal language spoken at home, so persons classified as 'non-English-speaking' could in fact be English-speaking and born in Australia.

The CREW data, like the Commonwealth's, are based upon country of birth of respondents and their parents. Findings from this data are presented below.

Participation in TAFE

Overseas-born people from non-English-speaking countries would seem to be under-represented in national and New South Wales TAFE course enrolments. The Commonwealth Department of Education source (Education 1978) showed overseas-born from non-English-speaking countries as comprising 8% of the 1975 TAFE national population. In comparison, migrants from non-English-speaking countries made up 12% of the 1976 population aged 15 to 34. Students with fathers from non-English-speaking countries comprised about 14% of the 1975 TAFE enrolments, but about 18% of the population aged 15 to 34.

In New South Wales the enrolment data on migrants from non-English-speaking countries in TAFE, in the survey reported by Caldwell (1984), include those born in Australia in families of non-English-speaking origin. These enrolments made up 8.6% of New South Wales TAFE enrolments, whereas approximately this proportion of the whole NSW population aged 15 to 24 was born in non-English-speaking countries. Another measure is the proportion of the population enrolled in TAFE: for those of English-speaking background it was 6.1%, and for those from non-English-speaking countries it was 4.2%.

Evidence of lower representation of migrants from non-English-speaking countries in TAFE is fairly conclusive, but this in itself does not prove inequity. The level of participation in tertiary education as a whole must be borne in mind, and the tendency for migrants from non-English-speaking countries to be under-represented in TAFE may reflect, to a greater or lesser extent, a preference on their part to undertake higher education than that offered by TAFE, rather than difficulties in their entering TAFE.

Participation in trade courses

Several sources show that the under-representation of migrants of non-English-speaking background in TAFE is most marked in trade courses. Caldwell et al. (1984) show that, in NSW, only 17% of males of non-English-speaking background as against some 35% of all male TAFE students, and some 1.5% of non-English-speaking background females as against 2.0% of all female TAFE students, are enrolled in trade or post-trade courses. The longitudinal study being carried out by Williams for ACER also shows an under-representation of migrant youth from non-English-speaking countries in his full-time work/part-time education population category, where most of the trade apprentices in the survey would be located. Sloan (1985) reports ABS and other surveys that indicate a relatively low proportion of apprentices born, or with fathers born, in a non-English-speaking country.

Data on migrants from the current CREW study on NSW tradespersons also seem to indicate that migrants are under-represented in entry to trades through apprenticeship. This does not mean that migrants are under-represented in trades. For example, the Census data show that, in general, overseas-born, whether from English-speaking or non-English-speaking countries, are not under-represented in skilled trade occupations, though there is no way of determining what proportion of these, in comparison with Australian-born, are working with skilled trade qualifications.*

However, the CREW data suggest that Australian residents from non-English-speaking countries are under-represented as tradespersons who entered their trade from an apprenticeship within New South Wales (Table 4.14). Indeed, the CREW data also suggest that, compared with the general population, Australian residents with parents born in non-English- speaking countries could also be under-represented. Although in the case of both migrants and their children, there might have been some bias caused by a greater difficulty of identifying those tradespersons from non-English-speaking countries.

* Data from the 1981 Census for place of birth and father's place of birth of persons aged 20 to 29 and holding trade qualifications were shown in Tables 4.9 and 4.10 . Persons born in non-English-speaking countries were a little less likely to hold qualifications than those born in Australia or overseas English-speaking countries. However, a higher proportion of persons born in one of several European countries, notably Germany and Italy, held trade qualifications. Persons born in Greece, Lebanon, other Asian and North American countries were under-represented. Some of those born overseas would have obtained their qualification overseas, especially those from countries such as Germany, where apprenticeship forms a major part of the training system. For Australian-born persons with fathers born outside Australia, trade qualifications were held by a high proportion of those with fathers born in Malta and the Netherlands, and a noticeably low proportion of those with fathers born in Greece. But it must be remembered that, of Australian-born persons aged 20 to 29 with Greek-born fathers, a noticeably high proportion held degrees.

Table 4.14: Comparisons of tradespersons and general population, place of birth and parents' place of birth (percentages)

A. Place of birth of respondents and Australian general and selected trade populations

	Respondents to CREW study Aged 20-29		Population* (1981)		
			NSW males aged 20-29	Australian population	
Place of birth	Fitters & machinists	Electrical	General	Fitters & machinists	Electrical
Australia	85.8	89.0	77.7	68.7	79.2
UK and Eire	5.8	6.4	5.7	13.2	10.2
Elsewhere	8.4	4.6	16.6	18.1	10.6
N =	409	359	422,000	19,822	106,902

B. Place of birth of fathers of:

	Respondents to CREW study		Male population*
	Fitters & machinists	Electrical	NSW aged 20-29
Australia	68.5	70.9	66.2
UK and Eire	13.1	11.5	9.8
Elsewhere	18.4	17.6	24.0

C. Place of birth of mothers of:

	Respondents to CREW study		Male population*
	Fitters & machinists	Electrical	NSW aged 20-29
Australia	71.0	74.6	68.1
UK and Eire	12.0	9.3	8.5
Elsewhere	17.0	16.1	23.4

Source: ABS 1981 Census Data and CREW Study of apprenticeships in New South Wales

* The 1981 Census did not contain a question upon birthplace of parents of overseas-born Australian residents. Hence, these populations are estimated on the assumption of numbers of Australian-born parents of overseas-born residents not being sufficient to distort significantly the proportions if parents of overseas-born residents are treated in the estimates as also overseas-born.

In view of the consistency of findings from these sources, the general observation is that migrants from non-English-speaking countries are under-represented in apprenticeships. This might be put down to a number of factors including:

- the usual requirement for persons entering apprenticeships to have entered the country at least by the age of 15 or 16 so that they can successfully compete for the limited vacancies
- the inclusion in several apprenticeship selection processes of a test on word comprehension
- aspirations, particularly of first generation Australian-born in families of non-English-speaking background, for higher education.

Table 4.15: Proportion of tradespersons who had obtained apprenticeships by personal contact and by answering advertisements, by place of birth of respondents and parents, and by occupation of father

Occupational background of fathers	Respondents born in Australia			Respondent born outside Australia	
		Parents born in		Parents born in	
	(1) Australia	ES (2) country	NES (3) country	ES (4) country	NES(3) country
Personal contact					
White collar	26.3	33.3	34.8	31.8	20.0
Skilled	19.9	27.8	18.2	8.0	20.0
Other	16.5	16.7	21.7	16.7	8.3
All respondents	21.9	25.4	23.5	18.6	15.6
N =	497	71	102	59	32
Answering advertisements					
White collar	55.4	53.3	43.5	54.5	40.0
Skilled	65.2	52.2	48.5	72.0	53.3
Other	69.9	44.4	52.2	50.0	41.7
All respondents	62.0	50.7	49.0	51.0	46.9
N =	497	71	102	59	32

Source: CREW (1984) Study of apprenticeships in New South Wales

1 one or both parents born in Australia
2 one or both parents born in English-speaking country other than Australia
3 both parents born in non-English-speaking country
4 one or both parents born in Australia or another English-speaking country

The traditional importance of personal contact in obtaining apprenticeships may also help explain the under-representation of migrants. In the case of electrical and metal trades (CREW 1984), personal contact is the second most important means of obtaining an apprenticeship, and in the case of carpentry and joinery it is the most important. Families without a strong contact among employers are therefore likely to be disadvantaged in the hunt for jobs, and this might tell against recent arrivals.

Nevertheless, any differences among families in their contact with employers are not just due to place of birth. Table 4.15 shows that class, as measured by occupational background of parents, is also important, whether or not the parents were born in non-English-speaking countries. Persons with fathers in white-collar occupations were more likely to have obtained electrical and fitter/machinist apprenticeships through personal contacts than those with fathers in other types of occupation. Persons with fathers outside white-collar or skilled occupations were least likely to have obtained such apprenticeships.

A final finding of the CREW data, shown in Table 4.16, was that the children of parents in white-collar occupations are under-represented in the trade population from non-English-speaking countries. The reason might be that they are under-represented in the general population from non-English-speaking countries, or, alternatively, that they have greater aspirations for their children to enter non-manual rather than manual occupations.

Table 4.16: Occupational background of parents of electrical and fitter/machinist tradespersons, who had undertaken apprenticeship in NSW, by place of birth of respondents and parents (percentages)

	Respondents born in Australia			Respondents born outside Australia		All respondents
	Both parents born in:	One or both parents born in:		Parents born in:		
Occupational background of parents	Australia	another English-speaking country	non-English-speaking country	English-speaking country	non-English-speaking country	
Of father:						
White collar	42.8	41.7	22.5	35.5	14.7	38.2
Skilled	36.3	31.9	32.4	40.3	44.1	36.1
Other	20.9	26.4	45.1	24.2	41.1	25.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Of mother:						
Home duties	54.4	48.6	52.9	35.5	52.9	52.1
White collar	23.7	29.2	14.7	38.7	5.9	23.4
Skilled	5.8	5.6	5.9	4.8	8.8	5.9
Other	16.1	16.7	26.0	20.9	32.4	18.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
N =	498	72	102	62	34	768

Source: CREW (1984)

Regional disparities

The Caldwell et al. study (1984) clearly indicates regional disparities in concentrations of non-English-speaking people in TAFE in NSW.

Table 4.17 shows:

- greater unevenness of dispersion among those of non-English-speaking background than among those of English-speaking background in New South Wales, and in TAFE enrolments
- disparities between the distribution of enrolments and of population for people of both English-speaking and non-English-speaking background.

Table 4.17 also shows clearly the concentrations of more than 60% of enrolments of people of non-English-speaking background in the Inner Metropolitan and South West Metropolitan areas of Sydney, concentrations which are consistent with concentrations of students in ESL classes in individual colleges. For instance, in 1983, Sydney and Petersham Colleges in the Inner Metropolitan Region, enrolled 16.0% and 10.5% respectively of ESL students in the state, and Bankstown and Wetherill Park in the South West Metropolitan Region, 10.1% and 10.9%; that is, 47% of enrolments were concentrated in 4 of 19 colleges providing programs.

Unfortunately, the data are inadequate to show whether or not TAFE is providing an efficient and equitable pattern of distribution. The last column, which gives a crude index of the use of TAFE by people of non-English-speaking background, could suggest that the needs of people of both English-speaking and non-English-speaking backgrounds in the Southern Metropolitan area of NSW are comparatively neglected.

Table 4.17: Percentage distribution of TAFE enrolments and population by region and home language, NSW

	Enrolments (1982)		Population (1981)		Index of variation between distribution of enrolments and population*	
	ESC[1]	NESC[2]	ESC	NESC	ESC	NESC
Inner Met.	18.8	46.9	10.2	26.6	184	176
West Met.	8.8	9.0	14.1	16.0	62	56
South-West Met.	8.1	19.2	9.0	15.9	90	121
South Met.	4.6	3.9	9.1	12.9	51	30
North Met.	12.3	8.0	17.0	12.8	72	63
Newcastle	8.9	3.7	8.3	3.2	107	116
Wollongong	5.6	6.6	4.2	5.8	133	113
Rest of NSW	32.9	2.7	28.1	6.8	117	40
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	270,210	25,082	4,463,031	597,163		

Source: Caldwell et al. (1984)

* The index of variation is the percentage of enrolments divided by the percentage of the population, multiplied by 100.

1 ESC - born in English-speaking country

2 NESC - born in non-English-speaking country

Provision by gender

In spite of concern for equal employment opportunities for women, information is not necessarily collected on enrolment by gender. The Caldwell et al. study (1984), though it has data on enrolment of students from non-English-speaking countries in TAFE mainstream courses by gender, did not ask a question on gender in its survey of ESL participants. Of the four states surveyed, only Queensland provided official data.

At the South Brisbane College the male:female ratio among ESL participants was about 55:45. However, because of differences in the methods of organising courses and financing students, this ratio might not apply in other states.

In the first place, in the only three states where students are currently receiving Commonwealth allowances under the ESL program - that is New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia - only about 23% of the students are female (Table 4.18). However, since July 1983, students receiving this allowance have been subject to a means test. As a result the allowance is not available to females with employed spouses or to females on unemployment benefits.

Table 4.18: ESL allowance paid by the Commonwealth to states in 1983/84

State and Territory	1983* Number M	1983* Number F	1983* Percentage female	1984** Number M	1984** Number F	1984** Percentage female
N.S.W.	98	32	27.4	154	60	28.0
Victoria	135	60	27.9	91	18	16.5
Western Australia	173	34	16.4	101	22	17.9
Northern Territory	-	3	-	2	2	-
All respondents	426	134	23.9	348	102	22.7

Source: Department of Education and Youth Affairs
* From July 1, 1983
** From July 30, 1984

The allowance data describe only a small proportion of students undertaking the courses. For example, while 1,522 persons participated in ESL courses in New South Wales in 1983, only 9% of these were funded in the second half of 1983 (the period for which data is available) under the ESL allowance scheme. Others would have been funded on unemployment and other benefits, or under the ESL allowance scheme prior to its means testing; while others would be not funded at all. Hence, generalising gender breakdown from the allowance data is very risky.

Outcomes of programs

The only outcome data made available to the researchers came from certain Victorian TAFE colleges providing specific courses at specific times. The

collection of the data was on the initiative of those conducting the courses, and there does not seem to be any mechanism for ensuring its wider and continuing collection. Nevertheless, the follow-up studies that have been done show encouraging results.

For example Colls and Elliott (1984) report the six TAFE ESL courses held and completed at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology during 1983 and 1984. The figures in brackets are the numbers of students they were able to contact.

1983
English for Nurses (13 students) - 12 now employed as nurses in hospitals.

English for Electrical Mechanics (12 students) - 12 passed the SEC licensing examination.

English for Professional Engineers (14 students) - 7 now working as engineers.

Pilot course - Preparation for Nursing (15 students) - 7 accepted for subsequent enrolment in English for Nurses course.

1984
English for Nurses (13 students) - 11 now employed as nurses in hospitals.

English for Professional Engineers (14 students) - 6 now working as engineers.

The 1983 success rate for Professional Engineers (just under 50%) has dropped from that of 1981 and 1982, when the success rate was more like 90%. But, as Colls and Elliott point out, the employment rate of the 21 indigenous mechanical engineer graduates who graduated from the RMIT Faculty of Engineering in December 1983 was less than 25%.

Endear and Thomas (1984), reporting on a follow-up of TAFE college students doing Courses in English for Further Studies, found that 90% of the students were in Year 12 or tertiary courses in 1984.

However, although the students attending the above courses may be doing well, the courses cater for only a minority of migrants, and do not cater for some of their broader needs. Also, the specialising in certain occupational areas means that the offering of courses is restricted geographically to where there are sufficient numbers to make a class viable. Hence, several migrants who might find such courses useful might not be able to attend (Endear and Thomas 1984).

Findings

The findings which can be drawn from the available data about TAFE are few and inconclusive. In essence the data suggest:

- general under-representation of migrants from non-English-speaking countries in TAFE, particularly in trade courses. However, account should be taken of their representation in tertiary education as a whole, discussed earlier in this paper, and of their possible aspirations to move away from manual occupations

- considerable regional disparities in the nature and extent of commitment of TAFE to migrant education

- the still peripheral nature of migrant education in TAFE, although some states, NSW in particular, are moving to incorporate it into a multicultural education philosophy

- a high level of labour market displacement among users of ESL in making the transition into satisfactory work, although the exact causes of the displacement are suppositional, and comparisons with other needy groups in the community are hard to draw

- a definite bias in favour of men rather than of women in regard to finance for ESL courses

- a lack of anything but patchy data to determine satisfactorily the outcomes of ESL programs and how effective the transfer of courses from AMEP to TAFE is likely to be.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

On average, young persons born overseas in non-English-speaking countries, or with parents born in them, have relatively high rates of participation in post-compulsory education in both schools and higher education. They appear to have lower rates of participation in TAFE, particularly in trade courses. There are considerable differences between ethnic groups, with some groups having a relatively low rate of participation in schooling, as indicated by the percentage of 15 to 19-year-olds still attending school.

The high proportion of young persons of non-English-speaking background in post-compulsory schooling appears, paradoxically, to be in part caused by their language difficulties: there is some evidence that they tend to be older in a grade and are more likely to repeat a grade. For recent migrants, it could also be associated with greater difficulty in obtaining employment. The major factor appears to be very high aspirations for educational and occupational status.

Students of non-English-speaking background are in relatively high proportions in particular regions, eg. in Melbourne. Their numbers are disproportionately high in Catholic schools, though the majority of all students of non-English-speaking background are in government schools. Of interest for further study is whether the relatively high school retention rate of students of non-English-speaking background is a partial cause of the high average retention rate for Catholic schools.

A range of programs are provided by governments to assist disadvantaged students in schools, and many of these result in resources for students of non-English-speaking background. The provision of funds by the Commonwealth under the ESL program, the Disadvantaged Schools Program and the Participation and Equity program can be documented. Provision by state authorities under their special needs staffing policies may well be more important but are not easily assessed.

A number of reviews of the structure of secondary schooling, its curriculum, and the system of credentials are under way. But it is difficult to assess their impact on ethnic groups. In higher education, funding per student is declining somewhat, and emphasis is being placed on the science and technologies. Colleges and universities are being exhorted to cater for disadvantaged students which may result in more persons from low socio-economic backgrounds, including some ethnic groups, being admitted to higher education.

There is some suggestion in recent data that the extent to which participation of students of non-English-speaking background exceeds that of those of English-speaking background, has grown. Some recent data suggest a disproportionately high enrolment in universities, whereas data from the late '60s and early '70s suggested a disproportionate enrolment in CAEs. The explanation might lie in the slightly poorer academic performance of school students of non-English-speaking background which meant that they had to be satisfied with a place in a CAE, but that in the late 1970s access to universities was relatively easy - if financial support were available. Persons of non-English-speaking background appear to have received relatively better support from their families at a time when government student finance was eroding.

It is possible that the increase in demand for places in higher education occurring in the mid-'80s will mean a reversion to the earlier pattern of a disproportionately large number of persons of non-English-speaking background being enrolled in CAEs.

Whereas persons of non-English-speaking background are over-represented in schools and higher education, there is some indication they are under-represented in TAFE. Several different sources of data tend to confirm this. How much this under-representation is the result of high aspirations, or to what degree it is caused by the difficulties they face in entry to TAFE-associated occupations, needs further investigation. Personal contact appears to be important in access to apprenticeships. Parental occupational status appears associated with this personal contact, and many migrant parents from non-English-speaking countries are in low status occupations.

Migrant education as such is a new development in TAFE, stemming from a recommendation from the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs to transfer part of the activities of the Australian Migrant Education Program (AMEP) into TAFE. The intention of the transfer was to link the ESL courses with more general and vocational courses. AMEP is now meant to provide 'basic English' courses for those with less than a minimum competency in English, and TAFE to provide specific purpose courses for those of somewhat higher standard. In practice the division is not precise.

Funds for TAFE activities in this area remain small relative to AMEP. This is one factor in the limited achievements so far. Other reasons are the short time the program has been operating in TAFE, the funding on an annual basis with temporary staff, lack of staff development, lack of model programs, lack of support materials, lack of data on the target population, and the peripheral location of the migrant education staff in most state TAFE systems.

Some states have gone further than others. New South Wales is pursuing its program within a multiculturalism policy. Other states are beginning developments in this area.

A major part of the problem of commenting on ethnic groups in TAFE is the lack of data. The best data are available for NSW, though occasional surveys have been made in Victoria, and Queensland is keeping records of its ESL students' employment and job satisfaction. The Commonwealth keeps records of allowances paid to full-time ESL students, but this excludes those not receiving the allowance because of the means test and those taking courses part-time.

CTEC itself, though concerned about TAFE statistics on ethnic groups, has not felt able to promote further collections. Perhaps more surprising is the dearth of research in universities and other bodies.

APPENDIX: TAFE PROGRAMS IN THE STATES

New South Wales

The migrant education program operates through a Multicultural Education Unit, formed at the beginning of 1984 from an ad hoc project team established in 1983. The functions of the Unit are:

- co-ordinating the development of multicultural education and on-going policy review in TAFE
- liaising with officers at all levels of the Department, other Government departments, community groups, employers, unions, ethnic welfare and other education systems
- consulting with other sections of TAFE regarding the implementation of multicultural education policy
- providing a focus within TAFE for the expression of the educational needs and interests of students and communities of non-English-speaking backgrounds
- co-ordinating the development of initiatives in multicultural education practice which are outside the brief of a single school or other TAFE structure, including the efficient operation of the Multicultural Access Centre
- representing the area of multicultural education on TAFE committees
- co-ordinating the expenditure of special funding allocated to the area of multicultural education
- researching and monitoring information concerning developments in multicultural education
- providing executive support to the Multicultural Education Advisory Committee.

In 1983, New South Wales TAFE ran 163 migrant courses and activities in 18 Sydney metropolitan and 13 country colleges. A report on the 1983 program classifies these under a number of headings.

Bridging courses are provided for overseas-trained students in a range of occupations leading to employment in appropriate TAFE programs.

Entry and re-entry courses are for developing a range of skills (such as study skills) applicable for choosing and entering other courses.

Introductory courses are aimed at specific vocational areas and the related English (eg. Introduction to Accounting).

Tutorial courses are provided where numbers in vocational classes are inadequate for parallel classes in ESL.

Individual programs are extensions of the Individual Learning Centre provision to English Specific Purposes.

Pre-vocational courses are to assist students prepare for selective tests to enter various employment fields.

Vocational courses improve command of specific skills and related English required for specific occupations and industries.

Advanced English courses used as preparatory courses for entry [to] a non-specific course.

Abstracts from Caldwell et al. (1984)

The weighting given to funding these different courses is given in Table A1.

Table A1: New South Wales 1983 Migrant Education courses (percentage distribution of funding)

Course categories	Percentage of expenditure
Bridging	14.3
Entry and re-entry	22.3
Introductory	9.9
Tutorial	10.7
Individual	15.2
Pre-vocational	3.6
Vocational	10.7
Advanced English	13.4

Source: Caldwell et al. (1984)

Although entry and re-entry courses form the leading group of courses, the table shows expenditure is spread widely. The pattern of expenditure reflects the main philosophical purpose of integrating as soon as possible the migrant students into the mainstream courses of TAFE.

In addition to running the above courses, TAFE has been developing its staffing to provide information to migrant communities. For example, during the January/February enrolment period in 1984, TAFE employed 32 'bilingual' staff at the TAFE Information Centre, at the Wollongong College, and at eight Sydney suburban TAFE Colleges. Some have had their employment continued so they can promote TAFE courses in ethnic communities.

In addition to these specially employed staff, TAFE has permanent Course Information Officers (CIOs) at its Information Centre, and eight Colleges with 'bi- and multilingual capacities'.

Victoria

The running of the Victorian migrant education program is much more decentralised than that of New South Wales. In keeping with its general organisational policy, the Victorian TAFE Board has only a small central staff overseeing migrant education. It consists of two officers from Program Planning for the English language programs, and one from the Equal Opportunity Unit for the multicultural projects.

In Victoria, ESL courses are provided in 12 metropolitan colleges, 6 country colleges, and in a range of community learning centres. In addition to courses provided by TAFE, and those run by AMES, the Council of Adult Education runs a range of multicultural and English language courses at its centres.

The TAFE courses have been classified by the TAFE Board under the headings of:

Occupational English Programs tailored for a specific occupation, to assist in gaining qualifications, through study of language related to occupation.

English for Occupational Purpose (EOP) Programs with a core of English language study, and modules in specific occupational areas: eg. Business English, English for engineers, and also job-seeking skills.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Study skills to assist students to gain entry to further study in TAFE and other institutions.

English Language Support English as a second language assistance to students in on-going mainstream courses, eg. Tertiary Orientation Program (TOP), Business Studies, trades etc.

General Some programs, particularly in country areas, are general English courses at advanced levels of language proficiency, either full-time or part-time.

- Source: TAFE Migrant Education 1984, No. 11

Table A2: Victorian TAFE Advanced English Language Project, program profile 1984

Type of course	Number of submissions
Occupational	6
EOP	8
EAP	12
Support	2
General	4
Curriculum/research	5

Source: TAFE Board of Victoria

Courses offered by colleges varied, but programs provided at Preston TAFE College and RMIT in 1983 give some notion of the diversity of structure. For example Preston in 1983 ran:

Full-time courses
- English for Further Study (10 weeks, 24 hours per week)
- Study Skills (10 weeks, 20 hours per week).

Part-time courses
- Reading and Writing for Occupational Purposes (10 weeks, 9 hours per week)
- English for Migrant Women (9 weeks, 3 hours per week)
- Reading and Writing for Fluent Speakers (3 hours per week)
- Communication Skills (3 hours per week).

The RMIT College of TAFE, in contrast, was running courses more vocationally specific, such as:

- ESP (English Specific Purposes) for Electricians (10 weeks full-time)
- ESP for nurses, and
- ESP for Mechanical Design Draughtsmen.

Western Australia

Western Australia runs an Advanced English Program within TAFE consisting of two types of courses:

Migrant Access to Education (MAE), and
Job Oriented Migrant English (JOME).

During 1984 courses were provided at five colleges: Perth, Wembley, Bentley, Leedonville, Mt Lawley, Carlisle, and Woodsure Street.

The resources of the programs seem fairly evenly divided between the two types of program: JOME has more part-time courses than MAE, but the average length of full-time courses in MAE (the same in number as JOME) tends to be longer than JOME. All MAE full-time courses ran for 12 weeks for 24 hours per week; full-time JOME courses varied between 6 and 12 weeks.

Up until the end of July 1984, the two types of course had had approximately the same number of applicants: MAE 421, and JOME 451. The actual number of students on course, that is students who had either completed an AEP course, were currently on course, or were expected to complete a course, were also approximately the same for both types of courses: MAE 255, and JOME 292.

Table A3: Western Australian TAFE JOME applications received, by occupation as at 30 July 1984

Occupation	N
Fitting and machining	46
Boilermaking/welding	15
Electrical trades	28
Industrial sewing machining	98
Automotive mechanics	30
Mechanical engineering	29
Civil engineering	25
Electrical/electronic engineering	13
Small business management	3
Catering	19
Medicine	13
Clerical	36
Accountancy	13
Building trades	7
Computing	7
Nursing	7
Child care	1
Mining*	21
Miscellaneous**	40
Total	451

Source: Western Australian Education Department (1984) Progress Report Advanced English Program with TAFE, July 30 [memo].

* Applications have recently been received from a special group of 21 miners from Chile and plans are being made to accommodate these students in 1985.

** This category includes a wide range of migrants from diverse career backgrounds who have been interviewed for entry to the Combined Studies Course at P.T.C.

Queensland

The structure of provision and type of course offered in Queensland are distinctly different from those in the other states. In the first place, provision is mainly through one TAFE college, the South Brisbane College of TAFE. A few courses in specific ESL tuition are provided outside this college at Gladstone, the Gold Coast and Cairns. Migrants also sometimes make use of adult literacy classes, and of access courses in TAFE provided for native English speakers.

In the second place, the South Brisbane College has concentrated on developing flexibility in its programs for the limited time that working migrants might have to attend class and for the specialist needs they might have for their vocation.

The Program has three elements:

. ESL class modules ranging from 4 to 20 hours or more of course work per week

. an individualised Learning Centre

. a migrant tutor scheme.

Participants in the Program may combine these elements according to their specific needs.

The ESL class modules consist of:

. part-time modules (day and evening) of core courses in written English and Oral Skills, and of English for Academic Purposes

. a full-time course of 25 hours per week for 6 weeks in Preparation in English for Tertiary Studies (PETS)

. a full-time course 'Access Course for ESL Speakers', in three stages, each of one semester length, planned for 1985. This course may be provided at one or two other colleges in Queensland.

The Migrant Tutor Scheme is a unique feature of the Program. It can provide a one-to-one tutorial service to migrants with specific needs. Because of the diversity of these needs, persons were recruited from the general community, with special appeal to tradesmen, nurses and secretaries. Those selected were given a special course of 20 hours per week for 10 weeks. The Scheme itself became operative from the end of 1982.

In 1983, 310 students had attended courses at South Brisbane College; the average age of students was 32.6 years and 54.2% were males, and their unemployment rate was 68%. Of those who were employed 42% said they were dissatisfied with their employment.

In Semester 1, 1984, 276 students attended courses; the average age was 32.2; 55% were males; 60% were unemployed; and 33.0% of the employed were dissatisfied with their employment.

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THE COMMUNITY EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM: A SLIM SHARE FOR MIGRANTS

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The Community Employment Program (CEP) established in July 1983, provides employment opportunities for the unemployed through the funding of labour intensive projects deemed to be of social and economic benefit to the community. Priority for placement is given to those most disadvantaged in the labour market, namely - Aborigines, disabled persons, migrants with language difficulties, those in need of immediate employment, first job seekers and the long term (nine months or more) unemployed. Equal access for women is also of high priority.

This paper examines migrant participation, in terms of both participants and sponsors in the Community Employment Program. It examines the proportion of CEP places allocated to the migrant unemployed and compares this with their share of the unemployed. It also outlines the main characteristics of migrant placements and identifies particular migrant groups who have limited access to the program. Finally, the extent to which migrant communities have benefited from projects aimed at their specific needs is examined.

What little evidence is available would suggest that unemployment among recent arrivals, migrant youth, and those migrants with limited English is around 30%. While CEP specifies migrants with language difficulty as a special group, and therefore provides a specific focus of attention, it must not be forgotten that about one-third of the long term unemployed (the program's overall focus) are born overseas. It is therefore relevant to examine CEP from this perspective, as well as that of the special group.

The data contained in this paper is based upon three major studies undertaken by the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs as part of its review of migrant youth participation in labour market programs and services. The findings of this review are contained in the Institute report to Government, Reducing the risk (1985). The Institute was assisted in its study of CEP by the co-operation of the National Institute of Economic and Industrial Research at all stages of the analysis.

The first study was of national data on all sponsors and placements using information contained in the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations' (DEIR) Management Information System (MIS). The Project Sponsors' tape records details of all applications approved in 1983/84. Information was not available on the Federal component of CEP at the time of the study. Nevertheless, it is estimated that 8,161 projects were approved in the first year, including 278 projects funded under the Federal CEP. Placement details were available for 33,164 placements in Federal and State CEP. The Placement tape covers all placements in 1983/84, as well as 4,929 placements made early in 1984/85.

The examination of migrant placement in CEP relies largely on first year data because this information was not systematically collected after July 1984. In the first year of the program, a migrant was coded as having been born overseas, as having a language difficulty, or both. This was changed to record migrants only when they had a language difficulty, and as a separate code. Thus it is not possible to know how many migrants are now on the Program. Consequently, the type of analysis undertaken in this study cannot be repeated. Although based only on first year performance, the study is able to provide valuable information on migrant participation in a major labour market program.

The usefulness of using CEPMIS data to examine migrant participation in CEP is limited - it contains no details of level of education, previous employment

experience, or period of residence of migrants placed. As a second study, to overcome some of these deficiencies, two regional examinations of project sponsors and participants were undertaken. All projects operating in Fairfield (NSW) and Sunshine (Vic) municipalities were contacted and asked to participate, and interviews were completed with 32 sponsors and 209 participants in October/November 1984.

A third study, of Commonwealth and State/Territory Secretariats, was also undertaken. This provided information on administrative structures, approval processes, placement targets and migrant participation in CEP.

Migrant participation

A total of 5,323 migrants (16% of placements) were employed in CEP, of whom 1,298 (4% of placements) had English language difficulties (Table 5.1).

This was a significantly higher level of migrant participation than that achieved under CEP's predecessor, the Wage Pause Program (WPP). However, when compared with the proportion of migrants unemployed, migrant placements were still low. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) in 1984 estimated that migrants comprised over 30% of both the total unemployed and of those unemployed over nine months.

Table 5.1: CEP placements as a percentage relative to their share of the unemployed (first year, 1983-1984)

	No. of placements	% of CEP	% unemployed	% unemployed 9 months or more[1]
All migrants	5,323	16.1	31.8[3]	30.5[3]
Migrants with language difficulties	1,298	3.9	4.6[2]	4.3[3]
Aborigines	2,883	8.7	2.6	3.5
Disabled	3,174	9.6	6.8	13.0
Never worked	870	2.6	na	na
Women	11,002	33.2[4]	28.0*	24.5*
		39.8[5]	38.5**	36.8
15-24-year-olds	14,262	43.0	45.9	35.9
Long-term unemployed	16,283	49.1	25.1	100.0

Sources:
1. Based on DEIR, Community Employment Program: The first year (1984) and CES, Commonwealth Employment Service statistics, September 1984
2. National data on migrants with language difficulties is not available. Based on DEIR Survey of characteristics of migrants registered with the CES (1984) which shows that about 14% of migrants had a language difficulty.
3. Based on unpublished ABS data, October 1984
4. Proportion of women in CEP
5. Proportion of women in CEP, excluding the JOLOR and COWSIP components.

* CES figures
** ABS figures
Note: These groups are not mutually exclusive.

Given this, general migrant participation in CEP could have been expected to be about 90% higher than that which actually occurred, while the number of migrants with English language difficulties placed on CEP would have needed to be about 18% higher to be in line with their share of CES registered unemployed. Moreover, the under-placement for both migrants with English language difficulties and other migrants was not generally reflected for other special groups, such as Aborigines, the disabled, and the long-term unemployed.

Details on migrant participants are contained in Table 5.2. Approximately one in four migrants had a language difficulty. Over 69% were males who also accounted for 73% of placements of unemployed with language difficulties. About 76% of migrant placements were aged 25 years and over, with only 5.9% aged 15 to 19. The average age of migrant placements was significantly higher than the overall average (34.8 years and 29.6 years respectively). Female migrants tended to be seven to eight years younger than their male counterparts.

On average, migrant participants had been 11.6 months unemployed prior to placement. Males generally experienced longer periods of unemployment prior to placement than females (12.4 months compared to 9.7 months).

Migrants were employed across a broad range of occupations, with a lower proportion of placements, compared to Australian-born, in basic manual occupations, and a higher proportion in clerical, sales and service occupations. Migrants with English language difficulties were more heavily concentrated in basic manual occupations than were other migrants, and proportionately fewer of their placements were in the 'white-collar' occupations.

The regional study found a similar profile of migrant participation. There was considerable under-representation of overseas-born in CEP projects. Approximately 48% of the participants were Australian-born, 4% were born overseas in English-speaking countries, and 48% were born in non-English-speaking countries. In comparison, the proportion of those born overseas registered as unemployed at the CES offices in the two municipalities was 61%. Fifteen per cent of participants of non-English-speaking background were born in Vietnam, 13% in Yugoslavia, 12% in Spain or South America, and 8% in Malta.

There was a low representation of recent arrivals, and only 31% of the migrant placements of non-English-speaking background had been resident in Australia for less than five years, compared to 41% of unemployed migrants registered at the two CES offices.

The regional study also found that participation in CEP by migrants with English language difficulty was proportionately less than their share of the unemployed. About 18% of the migrant placements of non-English-speaking backgrounds had difficulties in speaking English, compared with 31% registered at the two CES offices.

Migrant placements had a higher level of school education than that generally found among participants in other labour market programs. Among CEP participants in the regional study, about 50% from non-English-speaking backgrounds had completed Year 12, compared to 16% of Australian-born. Females were better educated than males. The comparatively high level of education among migrant placements was also reflected by the proportion of those who had undertaken post-school education. Approximately 50% of migrant youth placements of non-English-speaking background had undertaken further education, compared to 32% of Australian-born placements. Females were much more likely than males to have undertaken further education.

Table 5.2: Migrant and total placements on CEP

Category	Migrants with language difficulty		Other migrants		Total migrants		Total CEP placements	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Number of placements	1,298	24.4	4,025	75.6	5,323	100.0	33,184	100.0
By sex								
Male	952	73.3	2,720	67.6	3,672	69.0	22,162	66.8
Female	346	26.7	1,305	32.4	1,651	31.0	11,002	33.2
By age								
15 - 19 years	37	2.8	276	6.9	313	5.9	4,739	14.3
20 - 24 years	184	14.2	786	19.5	970	18.2	9,523	28.7
25+ years	1,077	83.0	2,963	73.6	4,040	75.9	18,902	57.0
Average age	35.6 yrs		34.5 yrs		34.8 yrs		29.6 yrs	
By prior length of unemployment								
No prior unemployment	12	0.9	61	1.5	73	1.4	325	1.0
1 - 2 months	55	4.3	168	4.2	223	4.2	1,549	4.7
3 - 8 months	533	41.1	1,866	46.3	2,399	45.0	15,007	45.2
9 - 12 months	290	22.3	768	19.1	1,058	19.9	6,393	19.3
13 - 24 months	326	25.1	848	21.1	1,174	22.1	7,029	21.2
24+ months	82	6.3	314	7.8	396	7.4	2,861	8.6
Average length of unemployment	11.8 mths		11.6 mths		11.6 mths		12.0 mths	
By occupation (ASCO classification)								
Managerial and administration	14	1.1	201	5.0	215	4.0	893	2.7
Professional and related	90	6.9	470	11.7	560	10.5	2,538	7.7
Artistic, literary and sport	15	1.2	67	1.7	82	1.6	497	1.5
Clerical, sales and service	190	14.6	741	18.4	931	17.5	5,211	15.7
Primary production	78	6.0	219	5.4	297	5.6	2,331	7.0
Manufacturing and construction	259	20.0	1,030	25.6	1,289	24.2	6,528	19.7
Transport and materials	26	2.0	72	1.8	98	1.8	658	2.0
Manual	614	47.3	1,138	28.3	1,752	32.9	14,463	43.6
NEC	0	-	6	0.1	6	0.1)	45	0.1
Not specified	12	0.9	81	2.0	93	1.8)		

Source: CEP MIS Placements Tape

While the majority (82%) of Australian-born CEP participants had previous employment experience, only 62% of those of non-English-speaking background had been previously employed. Australian-born males were most likely, and female migrants of non-English-speaking background least likely, to have been previously employed.

Overall, the national data on CEP participants indicates that, while the program is successful in meeting most of its placement priorities, this success has not been reflected in the placement of migrants. The proportion placed of migrants with language difficulties was below their share of the unemployed. Migrant women fared badly in placements through the Program's preference for adult males. Migrant youth had lower participation under CEP than under its predecessor, the WPP. Further, the regional study suggests that the Program has favoured the employment of migrants with higher levels of education and a substantial period of residence at the expense of those with limited education and residency. The inference could be made that those migrants who were most disadvantaged, who were most likely to benefit from participation, and who the Program guidelines recognised as a priority group, were among those least likely to be placed.

Data available for the second year of CEP seems to include a substantial increase in the placement of migrants with language difficulties. Of the 75,810 approvals for placements made up to 22 July 1985 since the Program's inception, 5,067 were of migrants with language difficulties, bringing their proportion up to 6.7%. However, as will be outlined later, because of the ambiguities of defining language difficulties, and because there are no records of the total number of migrants placed on CEP beyond 1983/84, this may simply be due to more migrants being classified as having language difficulties.

Reasons for low participation

The shortfall in placement targets for migrants with language difficulties can be seen as arising from three main factors: sponsors (the employers); the CES in administration of the program; and the nature of the Program itself.

Few sponsors specify the migrant target in their applications. About 12% of state project sponsors specified migrants as a target; and of these half were for migrants with language difficulties. However, employers don't usually specify any of the Program's target groups, and this tends to keep placements in special groups down.

There has also been a reluctance for sponsors to take on migrants with language difficulties. From the sponsors' point of view, lack of English implies an employee's inability to receive work instructions, a safety risk and a workers' compensation risk. It is seen as a deterrent to the success of the project, and as a limitation of the participant's capacity to acquire skills likely to improve future employability. To sponsors, establishing CEP projects of benefit to the community was the primary motivation: the employment of target groups was secondary. Consequently, sponsors' desire to obtain those they consider the best people for their projects has acted to limit the referral and placement on the Program of the most disadvantaged.

Another factor acting as a restraint on migrant participation has been the limited participation of migrant groups as CEP sponsors and the small number of projects developed to benefit migrants in the community. Many of those projects that have been sponsored by migrant groups required 100% funding by the Commonwealth, as there were problems in meeting the sponsor contribution requirement of 20% of total budget costs.

Other difficulties migrant (and other community) groups have encountered in applying for CEP funds which have been noted by Commonwealth/State Secretariats are:

- problems in understanding and interpreting the objectives and guidelines of the program
- understanding laws and regulations involved in setting up projects
- understanding the wider community support network and the state/local government networks
- lack of confidence in handling the paperwork and dealing with a government body
- providing an acceptable level of management expertise to run a project and to administer the grant
- insufficient knowledge of special information, such as the name of Awards and Determinations of the positions required, necessary to complete an application form.

The Institute's consultations with migrant community groups across Australia raised similar concerns and problems. Most pointed to the difficulty of meeting sponsor contributions, few seemed to appreciate that this could be waived for some projects. Others referred to the bureaucratic process of completing the application for CEP project sponsorship as an insurmountable task for some organisations. A number of ethnic communities had not heard of CEP. In spite of the heavy promotion of scheme in national newspapers and the media, and the appointment of development officers to promote CEP among migrant communities, it was believed that insufficient attention had been given to marketing CEP in migrant communities. DEIR's plans to distribute program guidelines on CEP in languages other than English were thwarted when material prepared for distribution was withdrawn due to the changing of CEP guidelines in May 1984.

Sponsor details reflect these problems in that only 20% of projects seeking to employ migrants with English language difficulty came from community groups. State and local governments provided the bulk of these projects, most (74%) of which were in New South Wales. This also reflects the heavy public sector bias in the Program. The same applied when all projects seeking to employ migrants were considered.

The CES administration of the scheme further complicates the placement of migrants with English language difficulties. First, there is the problem of defining the special group. A number of officers from CEP Secretariats said during interviews that they considered migrants with language difficulty a very nebulous classification for a special group. Several interpretations canvassed from Secretariat officers included:

- people who are unable to communicate in the occupations in which they are placed
- people whose employment prospects are hindered due to their limited speaking and writing abilities
- a person born and educated in a non-English-speaking country
- a long-term unemployed person with a migrant background is considered a sufficient proxy for language difficulty.

Second, a similar definitional problem exists for those 'in need of immediate employment' for which no program targets have been set by State Secretariats. This procedure means that some migrants are not systematically considered for placement because there is no register of migrants with language difficulty against which CEP vacancies could be matched.

Third, because of employer reluctance to accept migrants with English language difficulty, and the supposedly limited skills of such migrants, they are assessed for only a limited range of jobs by the CES. This is clearly documented by the occupation and work activities in which migrants with English difficulty are placed when compared with other migrants on CEP. Over 67% of migrants with English difficulty were placed in manual, construction and manufacturing occupations. Other migrant placements were more evenly spread across occupations, with about 57% being placed in these manual occupations. Placement in clerical, sales and service occupations, and in professional and related occupations, were proportionally lower for migrants with language difficulties than those without.

This finding is reinforced when project activities are considered. Projects seeking to employ migrants with language difficulties were more likely to be involved in roads/kerbs/local parks activities which were mostly labour intensive and unskilled in nature. In the CES matching of clients for CEP jobs, migrants with language difficulties tended to be excluded for the full range of vacancies. This was especially so for migrant women with language difficulties who may have been reluctant to accept manual, labour intensive jobs.

These problems are part of the overall difficulty CEP (and its predecessor WPP) has faced in attempting to meet competing placement targets. The meeting of targets for Aborigines, the disabled and the long-term unemployed have often been at the expense of others, including migrants with language difficulties and women. In the latter instance, the predominance of public sponsored projects has meant that many CEP jobs have been 'blue collar', and in areas in which, traditionally, few women have been employed. The limited role played by the community sector has also restricted opportunities for migrants, especially those with language difficulties. The Federal element of CEP has not been a pacesetter, nor has it established a migrant component, as has been done for women and Aborigines. The CEP community outcomes goals have tended to take priority over its placement goals. This has meant that projects which promote the employment of migrants, especially those with language difficulties, have received little share of CEP funds compared to those promoting the employment of other special groups.

Benefits to participants

Guidelines for project sponsors state that projects should provide worthwhile work experience and/or training opportunities to enable participants to obtain further employment, and that consideration will be given to the degree to which projects are designed to meet the needs of special groups. Sponsors, however, are not obliged to take measures to assist participants overcome their particular difficulties. Nor are they obliged to offer training, although they are encouraged to do so.

It is useful to consider benefits to participants both from the sponsors' view and with regard to the needs and expectations of CEP participants. Since much detail was not available through official program data, this area was explored in the Institute's regional surveys. However, the small number of respondents of non-English-speaking background means that findings from the surveys have to be taken as indicative, rather than conclusive.

The regional surveys examined respondents' perceptions of the main reasons for their difficulties in finding employment, and what they expected to gain from their CEP placements. Participants aged over 25 most frequently mentioned the absence of suitable job vacancies as being an impediment to employment, while perceived lack of work experience was rated far more highly by younger people, particularly by the overseas-born of non-English-speaking background. Work experience was by far the most common benefit participants expected to gain from their CEP placements, especially the younger respondents (15 to 24 years). Younger respondents also expected training and skills acquisition.

In contrast to participants' expectations, CEP sponsors' views of the Program's primary objectives stressed the creation of employment for the long-term unemployed (47%) rather than the provision of work experience (6%). Fewer than one-third (28%) saw the primary objective as providing participants with skills and training that would increase employment prospects.

The provision of some skills training appears to have been a part of most CEP projects. In CEP's first year, according to official program data, 84% of project sponsors reported providing training, ranging from 93% of CYSS Centre sponsors, to 74% of sponsors from non-government welfare agencies. In the Institute's regional survey, while virtually all sponsors (97%) reported that participants had received on-the-job training, participants reported this had often amounted to little more than watching fellow workers (88%) and learning by themselves (84%).

Nevertheless, the majority of participants, both male and female, reported that they had learnt new skills. Younger placements were far more likely than the older ones to feel they had learnt something from their employment under the Program. This was largely because many youth placements had had no previous work experience, whereas older workers were frequently placed in jobs which they had done before. In fact, 43% of the total number of participants previously had done similar work to that they did while on CEP. The young of non-English-speaking background were least likely to have had work experience prior to joining the Program. Males, especially those of non-English-speaking background, were significantly more likely to be employed in jobs in which they felt there was nothing to learn, these being largely manual, low skill occupations.

While the great majority of CEP participants reported having gained new skills, this benefit ranked rather low in importance among the benefits they saw arising from their period of employment. Among the younger participants (15 to 24-year-olds), perceived gains from CEP participation largely mirrored their expectation noted earlier - most rated work experience first and foremost, and skills second. Females tended to be more positive in assessing gains than males: for example, while 68% of migrant females of a non-English-speaking background believed they had gained work experience, the percentage for migrant males from the same group was only 46%.

Although few participants in either age group mentioned improved prospects of future employment as a major benefit, most regarded themselves as better placed to find work after their CEP employment. Particularly striking in this regard is how young participants of non-English-speaking background saw their employment prospects. The belief that their job prospects had improved was shared by both males and females of non-English-speaking background, and to a greater degree than was reported by their Australian-born peers.

Prior to their CEP placement, a far greater proportion of those with English difficulties considered their chances of finding a job as 'poor' or 'very poor' - 70% compared with 55% of all CEP participants. Of the 21 participants with

little English, 12 said that steps were taken by themselves or their employer to improve their English. Only for six participants (all of them aged over 25) did this involve undertaking English courses. Others mentioned reading and talking with friends, supervisors and employers as steps undertaken to improve their English. All believed the steps which had been taken were helpful in improving their English language skills, and all but one said their improvement would assist in getting a job in the future. Of fourteen sponsors who reported employing participants with English language difficulty, only four said that participants were given time off work to attend English courses.

This lack of formal English language training points to the extraordinary situation that a program seeking to assist people with English language difficulty fails to provide help where it is most needed, and where it would appear to be most beneficial in being able to enhance their future employment prospects.

Benefit to migrant communities

One of the objectives of CEP is that projects should be 'of social and economic benefit to the community'. It is important, therefore, to look at the extent to which CEP projects have been of particular benefit to migrant communities. This is not to deny that there are a range of projects funded which have benefited migrants as members of the broader community.

Data was taken from the CEP sponsor tape of projects approved between October 1983 and the end of June 1984. Projects which sought to benefit migrant communities were identified either through the sponsoring body (Migrant Resource Centres, ethno-specific groups, etc.), or from the description of the project, eg. 'Ethnic Recreation Officer' or 'Migrant Women's Development and Research and Resource Project'. It is possible that some projects will have been overlooked in cases where the project description did not identify a specific migrant outcome. The data is from the state element of CEP only.

Of a total of 7,883 CEP projects examined, only 171 (2%) were identified as having outcomes specific to migrants. The majority of these (75%) were sponsored by community groups. The distribution of projects by state is roughly in line with population. The total budget for projects with migrant outcomes was $11.4m (see Table 5.3).

The Commonwealth contributed 81% of the funds for these projects. This represented little more than 2% of the total Commonwealth contribution to CEP over the period. One-third of the projects with migrant outcomes received 100% Commonwealth funding, which is much higher than the percentage for CEP overall. The projected number of placements was 677, 2% of all CEP placements.

Of those projects with outcomes specifically for migrants, most were described as community services (71%) and clerical and technical activities (22%). Other project activities with migrant outcomes were in construction, maintenance and repairs, local parks, museums and cultural, and training activities (less than 3% each).

Projects covered a broad range of migrant issues. Some of these examined the needs for, and provision of, services to a specified ethnic community (eg. Timorese). Others applied to migrants generally but had specific focuses, such as women's needs, children's services, telephone counselling. There were also projects to research information on, for example, interpreter and translation services. Another major sphere of activity was outreach work and communication. These projects were in areas such as health, the aged, and

Table 5.3: Details on CEP projects of specific benefit to migrant communities: project approvals, October 1983 - June 1984

Sponsor	Projects No	Projects %	Projected employment No	Projected employment %	Total budget $m	Commonwealth budget $m	% Commonwealth contribution	No. of projects with 100% Commonwealth funds
State government	31	18.1	167	24.7	3.53	2.62	74.3	1
Local government	12	7.0	35	5.2	0.55	0.44	79.3	2
Migrant Resource Centres	8	4.7	18	2.7	0.28	0.21	76.8	0
Ethnic Communities' Councils	4	2.3	9	1.3	0.21	0.18	87.6	2
Ethno-specific groups	79	46.2	291	43.0	4.04	3.33	82.6	32
Multicultural organisations	10	5.9	27	4.0	0.51	0.47	90.8	4
CYSS	2	1.2	5	0.7	0.08	0.07	89.1	1
Other non-migrant groups	25	14.6	125	18.4	2.37	2.09	87.9	14
Total	171	100.0	677	100.0	11.57	9.41	81.4	56

Source: MIS CEP Project Sponsor tape, State element only

participation in youth groups. A few projects involved basic clerical work for migrant centres and there was one instance of construction of a centre for use by a particular ethnic group.

In examining details of projects of benefit to migrant communities, in relation to sponsoring bodies, the sponsors were divided into the following categories: migrant resource centres, ethnic communities' councils, ethno-specific groups, multicultural organisations, CYSS and other non-migrant groups. Ethno-specific groups sponsored 79 of the community-based projects (46%) and 32 of these received 100% Commonwealth funding. Non-migrant community groups, including CYSS, sponsored 16% of projects and over half (56%) of these were wholly Commonwealth funded. State governments sponsored 18% of projects, local governments sponsored 7% and multicultural organisations sponsored 6% of projects. Of a total of 677 projected jobs, 43% were sponsored by ethno-specific groups, 25% by state governments and 18% by non-migrant community groups.

The relatively high proportion of projects with 100% Commonwealth funding among the community groups, which have sponsored most of the projects for the migrant communities, indicates that migrant communities are poorly funded and therefore have difficulty in meeting the usual eligibility criteria for CEP funding.

Conclusion

The data available for the first year of CEP shows that migrant participation has been low compared to numbers unemployed, and that the migrant unemployed have not benefited from the Program to the same extent as have other disadvantaged groups. Moreover, only selected migrants gained placement, with low participation among the less educated, recent arrivals, the young, women, and those with language problems.

Since over one-third of the long-term unemployed were born overseas, many unemployed women are migrants, and migrants represent a sizeable proportion of the other (excluding Aboriginal) special groups, it is clear that the Program has not fulfilled its objectives in dealing with its migrant target group. The poor performance of CEP in this respect highlights problems migrants have in gaining access to labour market programs and services offered by the Commonwealth: while about 32% of the unemployed were born overseas, migrants comprise only 16% of all labour market program placements.

This paper has indicated the range of factors contributing to barriers to migrant participation and has pointed to the pivotal role the CES plays in targeting programs. Sponsors' desire to employ workers proficient in English, combined with the difficulties migrant and other community groups have encountered in applying for CEP funds, and in meeting the sponsor contribution requirement, have also been discussed.

Job creation programs can achieve much by helping those most disadvantaged in the labour market to achieve a period of employment, gain work experience, and improve their skills and confidence. A considerable social benefit to migrant communities, as well as to participants, could ensue from more specifically targeted CEP projects. For unemployed migrants, this potential has yet to be achieved and the challenge for the Commonwealth Government is to make CEP both more accessible and relevant to those members of our community born overseas. Adjusting CES office selection and targeting procedures, and making English language instruction formally available within the Program, will assist in achieving this goal.

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The Special Youth Employment Training Program (SYETP) was introduced in October 1976 as a wage subsidy scheme to encourage employers to take on and train unemployed youth for a specified period. Initially targeted at 15 to 19-year-old 1975 school leavers, SYETP eligibility changed within a year to embrace 15 to 24-year-olds who had been unemployed for four or more of the previous 12 months.

Assistance under the Program is directed to unemployed youth disadvantaged through being unable to compete on the open labour market because they lack required experience and employment qualifications and/or personal qualities. SYETP seeks to remedy these disadvantages by providing each trainee with the basis for entry into continued employment with his or her training employer, or by equipping trainees with skills and experience which are readily transferable and acceptable to other employers.

Since its inception, SYETP's overall direction has shifted from on-the-job training to subsidised work experience. In 1976 the Program set out 'to provide training in a wide range of jobs in both commerce and industry';[1] in 1977 SYETP emphasised training and related work experience equally;[2] in 1982 the 'main emphasis' of the Program became 'work experience rather than training'.[3] Current guidelines for SYETP state that 'it is a work experience program as distinct from a skills training program'.[4]

Further changes have been foreshadowed in the Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs (the Kirby Report) which has recommended a rationalisation of wage subsidy programs. Under this proposal, a single wage subsidy scheme would replace SYETP, General Training Assistance (on-the-job training), the Adult Wage Subsidy Scheme and the Special Training programs for the disabled and special needs job seekers. This scheme would be targeted at those facing significant disadvantage in the labour market.[5] The Government has yet to respond to this proposal.

A number of research and evaluation studies of SYETP have been conducted.[6] These have not, however, concerned themselves specificially with the overseas-born, nor with the concerns of those from non-English-speaking backgrounds.

The four strands of SYETP

At present there are four strands of SYETP: Standard, Extended, Commonwealth and State. Standard SYETP seeks to assist unemployed youth to 'secure work experience and a firm foothold in the labour market'.[7] Up to July 1984, a private employer was offered a flat rate subsidy for each 15 to 24-year-old employed for 17 weeks. The subsidy, set at $75 in 1983/84, favoured the employment of teenagers over older youth: it was equal to about two-thirds of the average earnings for 15-year-olds, half of average 18-year-old earnings, and one-third of young adult earnings. Recently, a three-scale subsidy, equivalent to about 40% of average weekly earnings, was introduced following the release of the Interim Kirby Report.[8] Subsidy levels currently operating for Standard SYETP are $50, $75 and $100 for 15 to 17-, 18 to 19- and 20 to 24-year-olds respectively.

Other changes initiated in response to the interim report include:

- a requirement that the Commonwealth Employment Service give priority to the longer term unemployed when referring eligible job seekers to SYETP vacancies
- a provision that job seekers not be subsidised under Standard SYETP if they have worked in the same type of job previously unless substantial new skills are to be learned
- a requirement that employers retain one in every three subsidised workers for at least two months beyond the period of subsidy.

The last change was introduced to counter both official and community concern that employers may have been using the scheme as a means of obtaining an on-going supply of subsidised labour.

To be eligible for placement under Standard SYETP a person must have been away from full-time education and registered as unemployed for at least four months (17 weeks) in the previous 12 months. Current guidelines, introduced July 1984, require that priority be given to those unemployed for the longest period.

Subsidy levels for Extended SYETP were similarly changed in July 1984. Introduced in February 1981, Extended SYETP 'seeks to enhance the prospects of long-term unemployed youth and make them more competitive in the labour maket by providing longer periods of work experience'.[9] Restricted to 18 to 24-year-olds, it provides 34 weeks of employment for a person who has been unemployed and away from full-time education for eight months (34 weeks) in the previous 12 months. An employer is paid the Standard SYETP subsidy for the first 17 weeks of employment and an additional reduced subsidy for the following 17 weeks of employment. Currently, the subsidy levels are $75 and $50 for 18 to 19-year-olds, and $100 and $75 for 20 to 24-year-olds.

Commonwealth SYETP, begun in May 1979, provides full wage reinbursement for 17 weeks for trainees placed in public sector employment. State SYETP, introduced in 1979, was discontinued in August 1981 but reintroduced in January 1983. It provides a subsidy to a state government employer similar to that provided under Standard SYETP. No funds appear to have been allocated for state SYETP in 1984/85. Eligibility for placement is similar to Standard SYETP, although preference is given to those with least employment experience or qualifications.

Table 6.1 outlines the development of SYETP since 1976/77. While expenditure has risen from $6.6m in 1976/77 to $108.9m in 1984/85, as a proportion of total expenditure on labour market programs it has fallen from over 20% to 12.5%. Despite this proportional decline, SYETP provides assistance to more people than any other labour market program, including CRAFT and CEP. The number of participants in SYETP has risen from 9,590 in 1976/77 to 87,422 in 1984/85.

Within SYETP itself, there has been a substantial shift in priorities between the four strands. Expenditure on Extended SYETP has risen substantially since its introduction, to a point where it now constitutes the largest component of expenditure. In 1984/85 expenditure on Extended SYETP exceeded Standard SYETP by one third. The average cost of an Extended SYETP placement is now about $1,890, compared to about $870 for a Standard SYETP placement.

Table 6.1: SYETP expenditure and approvals, 1976/77 - 1984/85

Year	Standard		Extended		C'wlth/State		Total		SYETP exp.as % of total program expend.
	Exp. ($m)	No.	Exp. ($m)	No.	Exp. ($m)	No.	Exp. ($m)	No.	
1976/77	6.60	9,340	-	-	-	250	6.60	9,590	20.8
1977/78	59.92	64,000	-	-	-	2,000	59.92	66,000	55.5
1978/79	82.64	63,530	-	-	-	2,820	82.64	66,350	52.1
1979/80	21.00	37,750	-	-	3.20	6,550	24.16	44,300	21.4
1980/81	31.30	51,273	1.90	6,494	8.10	7,542	41.26	65,309	24.7
1981/82	27.10	37,525	16.90	10,582	9.70	3,589	53.70	51,696	26.0
1982/83	31.00	45,130	19.90	16,340	12.70	4,800	63.63	66,270	18.4
1983/84	50.90	50,718	51.80	31,454	17.50	5,410	120.20	88,582	15.4
1984/85	34.79	39,893	44.14	24,383	16.74	4,598	97.67	68,874	11.5

Sources: DEIR, Submission to the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs
Budget Statement, 1984/85, 1985/86

* 1984/85 appropriations

Migrant participation in SYETP

National information on the operation of SYETP is collected by the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations (DEIR) on its National Information System (NIS) data base. NIS provides details of all approvals, commencements, withdrawals and completions in SYETP and other programs. Information on SYETP for Australian- and overseas-born placements has been available since July 1981. Table 6.2 outlines approvals for SYETP by Australian- and overseas-born.

There has been a steady increase in the number and proportion of overseas-born placements in SYETP since 1981/82. Why this has occurred is difficult to determine. Recommendation 34 (now Decision 87) of the Evaluation of post-arrival programs and services (AIMA 1982) stated that DEIR should give high priority to encouraging the participation of migrant adults and youth in training and related programs, and particularly to those from groups with high rates of unemployment and low rates of participation in programs.

The development of Migrant Services Units in DEIR, the introduction of Migrant Resource Officers in CES offices, and a general awareness of the problems of migrant unemployment, may have contributed to increased placement. There are certainly no specific procedures relating to SYETP and its administration by CES which emphasise the placement of migrants.

Although there appears to have been an increase in migrant participation in SYETP, it is unknown whether those groups most susceptible to high unemployment rates are being adequately served. SYETP placements need to be looked at against the registered pool of eligible unemployed. Table 6.2 outlines the number of Australian-born and migrant youth receiving unemployment benefits for 17 weeks or more in May 1984. Comparable CES data are not available. The DSS data are used as a proxy for eligible SYETP recipients. When compared against SYETP placements for 1983/84, the data show that Australian-born youth had 15%

Table 6.2: SYETP approvals by birthplace, 1981/82 - 1983/84

	Australian		Overseas		Total
	Number	%	Number	%	Number
SYETP approvals					
1981/82	45,398	87.8	6,298	12.2	51,696
1982/83	57,144	86.2	9,122	13.7	66,266
1983/84	74,503	85.0[a]	13,087	14.9[a]	87,590
1984/85	58,972	85.6	9,902	14.4	68,874
UB* recipients					
(17 weeks or more) (15 to 24-year-olds)					
May 1984	84,896	82.9[b]	17,486	17.1[b]	102,382
Ratio of percentage Recipients/placements [a/b]					
Persons	1.025		0.877		-
Male	1.027		0.874		-
Female	1.023		1.007		-

Sources: DEIR, National Information System, 1981/82 - 1983/84
DSS, Unemployment recipients special run, May 1984

* UB = unemployment benefit

greater representation in SYETP than overseas-born youth, and that overseas-born males were less likely to be placed on SYETP than overseas-born females.

While the NIS data indicate that inequality between the Australian- and overseas-born in their access to SYETP has narrowed over the past few years, they provide no indication of participation by country of birth, nor by migrants of English-speaking background and those of non-English-speaking background. Such data are not collected by DEIR. It is therefore not possible to assess entry and participation in SYETP by individual birthplace or by English-speaking and non-English-speaking background. Moreover, available SYETP data provides little information on employment beyond the subsidy period. Without such data, it is not possible to make an adequate assessment of SYETP in terms of its availability and suitability to migrant and refugee youth.

SYETP studies undertaken

In order to overcome these deficiencies, two major studies of SYETP participants were undertaken. These studies were completed as part of the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs' review of labour market programs and services affecting migrant and refugee youth, which was completed in March

1985.[10] The first was a micro-study of three CES offices in Sydney with significant client numbers of migrants from non-English-speaking backgrounds, namely Auburn, Campsie and Marrickville. Unemployment levels in the areas served by each office were over 10% in March 1983, with migrants from Vietnam, Lebanon, Turkey and Greece constituting the largest number of overseas-born registered unemployed. About 60% of the registered unemployed were males. These offices were selected after consultation with the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations.

There were three components to the study of SYETP placements at these offices. First, details of SYETP trainees who had undertaken a period of training were tabulated on a detailed 53 question recording sheet. Information relating to each participant, and their SYETP employers and placements were recorded from six separate documents - the Job Seeker Card, Trainee Record Card, Vacancy Card, NIS Form, Trainee Agreement, and Employer Card. Second, a manual count of the 'active registers' of each office was undertaken to determine the age, sex and birthplace characteristics of registered unemployed 15 to 24-year-olds. Finally, interviews were conducted with managers and other office staff in order to gain an understanding of the day-to-day administration of SYETP in each office.

A total of 1,106 individual trainees had been placed on SYETP programs in Auburn (1982-83), Campsie (1983) and Marrickville (1982 - June 1983). Of these, 65 (about 6%) had had more than one SYETP placement. Over three-quarters of placements (77.6%) were for Standard SYETP, about one-fifth (21.1%) were for Extended SYETP, and the remainder had been placed in Commonwealth and state establishments.

The SYETP office study represents the main focus of analysis, and unless otherwise specified, all data referred to in the following sections relate to this study. However, the office record of SYETP trainees was deficient in a number of significant areas. While providing basic information on the birthplace characteristics of SYETP participants and their employers, the office records gave little or no information on type of training actually provided to participants, skills gained from employment, retention beyond the SYETP training period, reasons for leaving employment (other than completion/non-completion) or employment after completion of SYETP placement.

To counter these deficiencies a second study of SYETP participants was undertaken. This took the form of a mail-out sample survey of all SYETP approvals for Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Perth and Brisbane between July 1983 and April 1984 inclusive. DEIR assisted in identifying equal samples of Australian- and overseas-born participants. In June 4,022 questionnaires were mailed out.

A total of 823 questionnaires were returned, although only 783 were sufficiently complete to enable analysis. Of these, 433 respondents had undertaken a Standard SYETP, 272 an Extended SYETP and 54 a Commonwealth/State SYETP. The response rate was over 22%. However, as DEIR provided no access to the names and addresses of SYETP participants in the sample, it was not possible to re-contact participants in order to raise the response rate.

These two studies provide the basis for assessing migrant entry and participation in SYETP. A number of issues have been identified in published literature reviewing the operation of SYETP, and these will be considered in subsequent sections. They include:

- the level of access into SYETP
- the nature of work experience and training given to participants
- the extent of completion of subsidised period of employment
- the outcome of placement on completion of subsidised employment.

SYETP placement characteristics

Details of age, sex, education level and previous employment by birthplace were collected for trainees in the three Sydney offices.

Of the 1,106 trainees who undertook a SYETP placement at Campsie, Marrickville or Auburn, about 62% were born in Australia, and 6% were born overseas in English-speaking countries, mainly the UK, Eire and New Zealand. The other 32% were born overseas in non-English-speaking countries. People born in Lebanon (9%), Vietnam (5%) and Turkey (3%) were the three largest groups among those of non-English-speaking background.

National statistics on SYETP placements during the previous two years show considerable variation in numbers, age groups and male/female participation. For instance, while 51% of participants in 1982/83 were female, women made up only 44% of participants in 1983/84. The percentages of males in Standard, Extended and Commonwealth/State SYETP were 54%, 61% and 46% respectively. At the three offices SYETP placements were predominantly male, the percentages in each office being 55%, 56% and 40% respectively. The percentage of males in the mail-out survey, however, was significantly lower, with 48% in Standard SYETP, 52% in Extended SYETP, and 43% in Commonwealth/State SYETP.

Teenagers between 15 and 17 have regularly occupied the majority of SYETP placements: in 1984 it was reported that 60% of all Standard SYETP participants were aged from 15 to 17.[11] The age profile of trainees at the three offices was similarly skewed towards this group. Approximately 54% of Standard SYETP placements were aged 17 years or younger at time of entry.

The high percentage of younger teenagers in Standard SYETP reflects employers' preference and the higher effective wage subsidy previously available to teenage employees. In contrast, over 80% of Extended SYETP participants were aged between 18 and 21 years.

Table 6.3: Educational level of SYETP trainees

Schooling	Standard[1]			Extended[1]			Comm/State[2]
	Aust* (%)	ESB* (%)	NESB* (%)	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)
Primary	-	-	1.0	0.8	-	1.8	-
Form 1-3	37.6	25.0	24.8	39.5	71.4	21.4	1.8
Form 4	47.3	53.6	46.7	45.4	14.3	37.5	33.9
Form 5-6	8.7	8.2	22.4	9.5	14.3	28.5	64.3[3]
Trade/Tech.	4.2	7.1	3.8	2.5	-	8.9	n.a.
Diploma	1.5	-	1.4	2.5	-	1.8	n.a.
Degree	0.7	-	-	-	-	-	n.a.
Number	457	28	210	119	7	56	56

Sources: 1. Micro-study of three CES offices
2. Mail-out survey of SYETP participants
3. Detail on education level beyond Form 6 was not collected in the mail-out survey

* Aust = Australian-born; ESB = English-speaking background; NESB = non-English-speaking background

Table 6.3 shows that 80.2% of trainees had left school by Form 4 (Year 10). Participation in schooling beyond this level was higher for trainees born in non-English-speaking countries than for the Australian-born for both Standard and Extended SYETP, and the level of education of females was generally higher than that of males. Comparable information on Commonwealth/State SYETP was available only from the mail-out survey. Participation beyond Form 4/Year 10 was 64.3%, almost double that of Standard and Extended SYETP participants. Clearly, those unemployed youth with higher schooling were gaining entry into Commonwealth/State SYETP, in spite of guidelines which state that the least qualified should be preferred.

The majority of trainees appeared to have gained only short periods of employment since leaving school. Two hundred and eighty-three trainees (or 25% of placements) had no previous employment before undertaking a SYETP placement. Males were largely employed in unskilled or low-skilled manual employment, while females were predominantly employed in clerical occupations or in manual employment. About 21% had been previously employed in temporary jobs, while a further 22% were retrenched from their previous employer. About 15% of participants had been dismissed from their previous employer, with the percentage of Australian-born dismissed (17%) being double that of migrants of non-English-speaking background (8%). The records suggest that few left because of boredom, dissatisfaction with their job or for health reasons.

The majority of SYETP placements went into a program without any prior referral to another vacancy. The office data indicate that the CES had referred about 40% of participants to jobs prior to SYETP placement. On average, these participants were referred to just over two vacancies prior to placement, of which one was a SYETP position.

Table 6.4: Weeks unemployed prior to placement

Weeks unemployed	Standard[1]			Extended[1]			Comm/State[2]
	Aust* (%)	ESB* (%)	NESB* (%)	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)
1 - 8	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.2
9 - 16	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	7.5
17 - 25	62.7	53.8	63.6	2.2	7.7	1.3	26.4
26 - 33	21.0	23.1	18.6	2.2	-	-	18.9
34 - 42	6.6	7.7	7.2	52.2	61.5	47.3	7.5
43 - 52	9.6	15.4	10.6	43.4	30.8	51.4	26.5
Number	533	53	264	138	13	74	53
Average weeks unemployed	25.9	27.8	26.2	42.0	39.2	43.0	36.6

Sources: 1. Micro-study of three CES offices
2. Mail-out survey of SYETP participants

Table 6.4 outlines the duration of unemployment experienced by trainees during the 12 months prior to their SYETP placement. On average, trainees had been unemployed for 26.6 weeks prior to placement on Standard, and 41.8 weeks prior to placement on Extended. Based on these averages, most trainees had to wait a further 3 months (12.6 weeks) after becoming eligible before they commenced a Standard program, and a further 2 months (7.8 weeks) before commencing an Extended program. There were no significant differences by birthplace group or by sex in the average periods of unemployment for SYETP placements.

The average periods of unemployment experienced by Standard and Extended SYETP respondents to the mail-out survey were similar to those found in the office study (28.5 and 41.7 weeks respectively), although the mail-out survey collected information on unemployment beyond the twelve months prior to placement. For Commonwealth/State SYETP placements the average period of unemployment prior to placement was 36.6 weeks, significantly higher than for the comparable Standard SYETP.

Access to SYETP

About 36% of trainees (403 people) placed by the three CES offices were overseas-born. Both in absolute numbers, and as a proportion of all SYETP placements, there appeared to be a high degree of placement of migrants in these offices - more than double the national average. Access, however, needs to be assessed against numbers of unemployed registered at the three offices.

Office data on eligible unemployed was not readily available. Given time and resource constraints for study at each office, it was not possible to count manually the months unemployed of each registered 15 to 25-year-old, a total of 4,724 individuals. Access to training had therefore to be assessed against the total number of registered unemployed 15 to 24-year-olds. This has to be seen as an indicator of access only.

Table 6.5 outlines SYETP placements against unemployed registered at the three offices in 1983. A ratio of percentage unemployment to percentage SYETP placement for each birthplace group is calculated to measure the extent of access to SYETP. A ratio of 1.0 indicates that a group is gaining entry in proportion to its percentage unemployment, while a ratio of less than 1.0 shows participation less than birthplace percentage unemployed, and vice versa.

The data suggest major inequities in access to SYETP. Table 6.5 shows that access was generally highest among those born overseas in English-speaking countries (1.67) and lowest for those born in Vietnam (0.33). However, access to SYETP was not consistent throughout the data, with differences being evident by sex and region. For instance, while Yugoslav-born males (0.67) had limited access to SYETP, Yugoslav-born females (1.87) were the most likely to gain access. Surprisingly, those born in New Zealand (0.56) were almost as poorly represented in access to SYETP as were those born in Vietnam. This may reflect the fact that New Zealanders generally are more transient in Australia, and comprise a lower percentage of the eligible (longer term) unemployed than they do of the total unemployed.

Given the relatively small numbers involved, it would be unwise to read too much statistical significance into the figures for any particular group. It can be stated with some confidence on the basis of the data that the Australian-born and those born overseas in English-speaking countries had greater access to SYETP than those born overseas in non-English-speaking countries, and that access to SYETP for the overseas-born was generally higher for females than for males.

Table 6.5: SYETP placement and registered unemployed at CES offices

Birthplace	Male[1]			Female[1]			Persons[2]		
	Registered unempl.	SYETP placements	Ratio of placements to unempl.	Registered unempl.	SYETP placements	Ratio of placements to unempl.	Registered unempl.	SYETP placements	Ratio of placements to unempl.
	(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)	
Australia	51.5	64.4	1.25	53.1	59.8	1.13	50.9	61.9	1.22
New Zealand	2.1	1.4	0.67	2.8	1.6	0.57	2.3	1.3	0.56
ESB migrants[3]	2.6	3.3	1.27	3.0	4.4	1.47	2.7	4.5	1.67
NESB migrants[3]	43.8	30.9	0.71	41.1	34.2	0.83	44.1	32.3	0.73
Greece	2.1	0.6	0.29	1.7	0.7	0.41	2.7	1.0	0.37
Yugoslavia	1.2	0.8	0.67	1.5	2.8	1.87	1.5	2.0	1.33
Other European	3.9	3.3	0.85	4.7	6.0	1.28	4.5	4.8	1.07
Lebanon	11.8	12.2	1.03	9.3	8.5	0.91	9.9	9.6	0.97
Turkey	4.2	3.3	0.79	5.1	5.7	1.11	3.9	3.9	1.00
Other Middle East	1.5	1.7	1.13	1.8	0.7	0.39	1.9	1.3	0.68
Vietnam	12.4	4.5	0.36	8.6	3.5	0.41	12.2	4.0	0.33
Other Asian	3.4	1.4	0.41	4.3	2.2	0.51	3.6	2.2	0.61
Other NESB	3.3	3.1	0.94	4.1	4.1	1.00	3.9	3.5	0.90
Total	2,475	360	1.00	1,573	316	1.00	4,724	711	1.00

Source: Micro-study of three CES offices

Notes: 1. Data relates to only Campsie and Auburn placements
2. Data relates to Campsie, Auburn and Marrickville
SYETP Placements cover Jan-Dec 1983, except for Marrickville which only covers Jan-June 1983
Registered unemployed relate to 15 to 24-year-olds as at October 1983 (Marrickville), February 1984 (Campsie) and March 1984 (Auburn)
3. ESB = English-speaking background; NESB = non-English-speaking background

How can these differences in participation be explained? One possible explanation may relate to different periods of unemployment among different birthplace groups. Perhaps the Australian-born have a greater proportion unemployed beyond 3 months and are therefore more likely to gain entry. However, data from the Institute's surveys, undertaken as part of the review of labour market programs and services, suggest that those born in non-English-speaking countries are actually more likely to be unemployed beyond 3 months than are the Australian-born. If this is so, the variations in access outlined above may over-estimate that of people of non-English-speaking background.[12]

A second factor which may account for differences in access is the educational quality of SYETP applicants, assessed on the basis of years of schooling. However, as Table 6.3 has shown, a much greater percentage of trainees of non-English-speaking background had education levels beyond Year 10 than had the Australian-born. Further, as over 70% of these had been in Australia for more than 5 years prior to commencing their SYETP placements, most would have completed their secondary education in Australia. Thus, migrants from non-English-speaking countries appear either to have had to have superior educational standards to gain admittance to SYETP, or they were less likely to secure access in spite of generally higher education levels.

Of course, a migrant of non-English-speaking background may have formal educational qualifications but remain functionally illiterate because of poor English language skills. The CES records details of each SYETP placement's ability to speak and write English. Such records must be treated as indicative, since CES applies no formal test of English ability and the measures of assessment are subjective, language ability generally being assessed by a CES officer during interview. Among the Australian-born, few had difficulties in speaking (0.2%) or writing (1.1%) English. Among the trainees from non-English-speaking countries, while few could not speak English (2.9%), a significant proportion (13.9%) could not write English. If this was a characteristic feature of the migrant unemployed, it would limit CES officers' capacity to place migrants of non-English-speaking background on SYETP programs, particularly as about one-quarter of SYETP vacancies specified proficiency in English as a condition of employment.

Table 6.6: Work sought and SYETP placement*

	Work sought			Work (SYETP) obtained		
Occupation	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)
Rural	0.5	-	1.2	-	-	-
Professional	0.5	-	0.3	0.5	-	0.3
Sales/clerical	37.4	25.4	36.8	37.5	26.5	36.0
Skilled manual	1.4	3.2	1.8	2.5	4.4	2.4
Manual	49.0	63.5	54.7	48.4	64.7	55.6
Unskilled	7.2	3.2	2.1	6.1	-	2.9
Protective	0.2	-	1.0	0.4	-	0.6
Other service	3.3	3.2	2.1	4.2	2.9	2.2
Private domestic	0.5	1.5	-	0.4	1.5	-
N =	629	63	329	759	68	378

Source: Micro-study of three CES Offices

* Work sought refers to each individual's preference, while work obtained refers to total placements, a number of individuals having more than one placement.

A fourth factor which may account for differences in access is the placement's job preference. Table 6.6 outlines work sought and SYETP placement. Placement in manual occupations was sought by 49.0% of Australian-born, compared to 63.5% for migrants from English-speaking countries and 54.7% for those of non-English-speaking background. Administrative/clerical positions were sought by about 36% of registrants. These figures, however, hide significant differences in the preferences of males and females - wherase 70% of males were looking for a job in manual occupations, 65% of females sought work in clerical/sales occupations.

Table 6.6 shows a significant degree of linkage between jobs sought and SYETP placements. In the majority of cases, individuals were placed in the major occupation in which they sought employment. Occupational preference is usually determined by CES officers after discussion with individuals at registration. Clearly, assessment of occupation sought is a major factor in determining SYETP placement. To the extent that more SYETP jobs are likely to be for unskilled manual labor than is the 'preference' for such work among migrants, this should improve the access of migrants of non-English-speaking background to placements. However, it is at least possible that officers' assessment of occupational preference reflects cultural stereotyping. That a greater proportion of migrants of non-English-speaking background were placed in unskilled work, in spite of their generally higher educational levels, may have been a consequence of this.

Gender differences in occupation sought are also reflected in SYETP placements. While 69% of males were placed in manual occupations, only 27% of females were in such occupations. Alternatively, the percentage of males and females in clerical/sales occupations were 14% and 64% respectively.

A final factor to be considered is the 'matching procedures' adopted by CES officers. Although eligible unemployed can directly canvass employers for placement, over 92% of placements at the three Sydney offices arose from employer requests for a subsidised position. In these cases, CES officers match each vacancy against the register of eligible unemployed and are required to take into account employer preferences and program guidelines. In such situations, the initial occupation sought, as assessed by the individual and the CES officers, is important in influencing eventual placement. As reported in Reducing the risk, many migrants classified in manual occupations tend not to have been matched for SYETP placement.[13]

Overall, it must be concluded that differences in access to SYETP stem from employer preference, differences in English proficiency levels among the unemployed, applicants' employment preferences, and CES matching procedures. The relative importance of each factor, and how each operates to limit the access to SYETP of migrants of non-English-speaking background, remains unclear.

Nature of work experience and training

Employers participating in SYETP are required to provide each placement with work experience and training. Work experience is defined in the CES Manual as the 'acquisition of sound work habits, learning about what happens and what is valued at work, and knowledge of how to fit into an organisation and become useful to it'. Each employer signs a Training Agreement setting out the nature and extent of on-the-job training to be provided for each placement.

The CES monitors each placement, either by personal visit, telephone contact or correspondence, during the period of subsidy. In the majority of cases, monitoring is only superficial, and usually conducted over the telephone, with

little record kept of actual work experience and training. In the SYETP office study, in 64% of Standard SYETP placements and 57% of Extended SYETP placements, no supervising visits had been made by the CES. In those cases where visits occurred, each placement received one or two visits.

In the absence of data on the work experience and training provided by employers, the mail-out survey was used as the chief means of assessing employment and training activities. Over 63% of participants undertook their training in a small firm of fewer than 20 employees, while about 30% were employed in medium to large firms. About 7% were employed in Commonwealth/State establishments.

Table 6.7 outlines the nature of training provided in Standard and Extended SYETP. The main method of training was through work itself - trainees acquired their skills as they went along, quite literally 'learning-by-doing'. Approximately 37% of placements were trained by a workmate, and only 31% were trained by a supervisor. The low level of training associated with SYETP reflects the fact that many of the tasks were easily learned and required only basic skills. In 8% of placements the work was considered too simple to require any training. Responses were similar across birthplace groups, although among migrants of non-English-speaking background the level of supervision was marginally higher, and a greater proportion received training in special classes. In Commonwealth/State placements, the main method of training was through the supervisor or work mates and fewer were left to learn about the job by themselves.

Table 6.7: Acquisition of job skills under SYETP

	Standard/Extended				Comm/State
Means by which training acquired	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)
'Picked Up'	42.6	45.5	41.3	43.1	37.5
Workmate	38.9	32.1	39.7	37.2	41.1
Supervisor	29.6	30.6	32.5	30.8	46.4
Special classes	0.5	0.5	4.4	1.4	1.8
Already experienced	19.6	23.9	12.3	19.1	14.3
Work is simple (None)	9.0	8.1	7.3	8.4	3.6
N =	378	209	179	766	56

Source: Mail-out survey of SYETP participants

Respondents were asked to report on skills gained from participation, and their responses are presented in Table 6.8. Over three-quarters of respondents indicated that they had gained work experience, whereas only 8.5% stated they had gained none. About 65% of participants also felt they had acquired work skills, although of those who had obtained employment since completing their SYETP, only 40% felt that these skills had proved useful in their current job. About the same number of participants felt that participation had contributed to an improvement in their self-confidence, and over half felt they had obtained a clearer idea of future work from participating in SYETP. Again, the responses were equally shared across each of the birthplace groups.

Table 6.8: Skills gained from SYETP employment

Skill acquired	Standard/Extended				Comm/State
	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)
Nothing at all	9.0	9.1	6.7	8.5	1.8
Work skills	66.1	64.6	64.6	65.3	75.0
Work experience	76.1	78.2	72.4	75.8	89.1
Steady employment	47.6	50.2	41.7	50.0	43.6
Confidence	63.2	64.9	61.3	63.3	74.5
Clearer idea of future work	55.3	53.6	56.7	55.0	60.0
N =	380	212	181	693	55

Source: Mail-out survey of SYETP participants

Overall, over 80% of SYETP participants felt that they had benefited from their participation, and about 90% were interested in undertaking another SYETP. Participants in Commonwealth/State SYETP were generally more positive about their employment than those placed with private employers.

Completion of subsidised employment

National SYETP data on weeks of subsidised employment completed indicates considerable variation from year to year. For Standard and Extended SYETP, the completion rates for 1982/83 were 53.7% and 30.9% respectively, and for 1983/84 the rates were 61.1% and 39.3% respectively. Completion rates for Commonwealth/State SYETP were substantially higher, at 82.9% for 1982/83 and 81.9% for 1983/84.

The data, however, do not provide details of completion by birthplace. Table 6.9 documents weeks completed for Standard and Extended SYETP from the micro-study of three offices, as well as national SYETP data on retention for the same period. Data on completion for Commonwealth/State SYETP are also included. In both Standard and Extended SYETP, the first eight weeks of employment were accompanied by a high level of 'drop-out' from employment (over 30%). Only 53.9% of those who undertook a Standard program completed the full 17 weeks. For Extended SYETP the proportion who completed the first 17 weeks was similar (50.3%) and the percentage completing the full 34 weeks was 29.3%. These rates are similar to those applying nationally to SYETP participants in 1982/83.

Completion rates for Standard SYETP were higher for overseas-born than Australian-born, but the reverse was true for Extended. For example, while 51.8% of Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries completed a Standard SYETP, the equivalent figure for migrants of non-English-speaking background was 58.7%. The average number of weeks completed by participants in Standard was 12.0 weeks for Australian-born and 12.8 weeks for overseas-born, that is about 75% of the subsidy period. For Extended, the average period of training was 17.8 weeks for Australian-born and 17.4 weeks for the overseas-born, a period of about 51% of the subsidy period. Some 32.2% of Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries completed the program, compared to 29.9% for migrants of non-English-speaking background. In short, while access to SYETP generally seems to have been harder for those of

Table 6.9: Weeks of subsidised employment completed by SYETP placements

Weeks	Standard					Extended					Commonwealth/State	
	SYETP Office Study				NIS National data	SYETP Office Study				NIS National data	SYETP Mail-out survey	NIS National data
	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)	(%)	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
1 - 4	20.8	16.7	14.0	18.6	17.5	20.9	25.0	24.7	22.4	18.7	-	3.4
5 - 8	13.2	7.4	17.0	14.2	12.6	14.9	8.3	16.9	15.2	13.4	3.9	3.4
9 - 12	6.1	13.0	5.9	6.2	9.8	5.2	-	7.8	5.8	9.9	9.8	4.3
13 - 16	8.9	1.9	4.4	7.1	6.4	6.7	8.3	5.2	6.3	8.0	7.8	6.0
17	51.0	61.0	58.7	53.9	53.7	6.6	16.8	2.6	5.4	2.1	78.5	82.9
18 - 20	-	-	-	-	-	4.5	8.3	2.6	4.0	4.2	-	-
21 - 24	-	-	-	-	-	8.2	-	3.9	6.7	5.1	-	-
25 - 29	-	-	-	-	-	3.7	8.3	2.6	3.6	7.7	-	-
30 - 33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	1.3		-	-
34	-	-	-	-	-	32.8	25.0	29.9	29.3	30.9	-	-
N	575	54	271	900	38,200	134	12	77	223	11,237	51	4,171

Sources: DEIR, National Information System (NIS), 1982/83
Micro-Study of three offices
Mail-Out Survey of SYETP participants

Note: ESB = migrants of English-speaking background; NESB = migrants of non-English-speaking background

non-English-speaking background, when they have gained access they appear to have been equally successful at completing the subsidised period of training.

Differences in the completion rates and training levels of Standard and Extended SYETP participants are largely due to differences in withdrawal and termination rates. Withdrawal rates from Standard and Extended were 33.9% and 37.7% respectively. In contrast, termination by employers was 23.2% and 39.4% respectively. Termination was more frequent than withdrawal in the first 17 weeks of Extended, while the reverse applied in the latter 17 weeks.

While the office data provide information on the extent of subsidised training completed, they provide no information on continued employment beyond the subsidy period. Neither are these data collected by DEIR in its National Information System. Such information is important in assessing the extent to which SYETP is meeting its objective of assisting the young unemployed to gain a firm foothold in the labour market. It is also important when comparing the relative outcome of Standard and Extended SYETP.

Table 6.9, derived from the mail-out survey, shows the percentage distribution of SYETP placements' weeks of employment, including employment beyond the subsidy period. About 43% of placements were retained beyond 17 weeks in Standard, and 23.8% were retained beyond 34 weeks in Extended. Retention beyond 17 weeks in Commonwealth/State SYETP has not been included as retention is neither intended nor possible given that these positions are temporary and supernumerary.

From Table 6.10 it is possible to compare SYETP placement retention in Standard relative to Extended. As noted previously, about 62% to 64% of placements completed their first 17 weeks of employment in both strands. This is identical to the national rate of retention for 1983/84, of which the mail-out respondents were part. After 26 weeks (about 6 months), the retention levels are about the same, at around 49% to 51%. The higher subsidy paid for Extended, and its subsequent reduction after 17 weeks appears to have little impact on retention rates over Standard SYETP. It is only after 26 weeks that the longer subsidy period of Extended seems to impact on retention levels. At 34 weeks of training, the retention level was 19.6% for Standard and 33.8% for Extended. However, after 53 weeks, only about 2% of placements were still with their SYETP employer.

Generally, placements of non-English-speaking background had a higher completion rate than Australian-born in Standard, and a lower completion rate in Extended SYETP, but these differences appear to narrow over time. By the 34th week of Extended SYETP, completion rates for such migrants began to exceed those of the Australian-born. If one examines the Standard SYETP data it is apparent that they were less likely to have stayed with their training employer for long periods: whereas 12.6% of Australian-born and 8.2% of migrants of English-speaking background stayed 43 weeks or more, the equivalent figure for migrants of non-English-speaking background was only 5.5%.

Overall, the average length of employment was 21.3 weeks for Standard SYETP and 23.6 weeks for Extended SYETP. There was little mean variation between birthplace groups, except in the case of Extended SYETP where the Australian-born had a longer average period of employment. For only a small percentage of placements did Extended SYETP provide a longer period of work experience.

Table 6.10: Weeks employed in SYETP employment

Weeks	Standard				Extended			
	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)	Aust (%)	ESB (%)	NESB (%)	Total (%)
1-8	22.6	12.9	18.9	18.8	17.8	23.7	18.4	19.6
9-16	21.6	17.7	17.8	19.5	9.9	17.0	26.5	15.8
17	13.1	25.0	24.4	19.0	5.0	10.1	6.1	6.7
18-25	12.1	16.1	11.1	13.2	16.8	11.9	6.1	13.0
26-33	8.0	14.5	8.9	10.4	15.8	8.4	6.1	11.5
34	1.5	-	3.4	1.4	9.9	6.8	14.3	10.0
35-42	8.5	5.6	10.0	8.0	16.8	11.9	16.4	15.3
43-52	10.6	8.2	4.4	8.5	6.0	10.1	6.1	7.1
53+	2.0	-	1.1	1.2	2.0	-	-	1.0
Number	199	124	90	413	101	59	49	209
Average weeks employed	21.6	20.9	23.1	21.7	25.0	23.8	22.0	24.0

Source: Mail-out survey of SYETP participants

Outcome of SYETP placement

Through a continuous period of employment, SYETP seeks to provide each placement with experience and skills 'which are readily transferable and acceptable to another employer'. Previous studies of SYETP have noted that those with the best record of continued employment beyond subsidy period are those who remain with their SYETP employer. However, the data from the present study indicate that few are still with the SYETP employer after one year. We know little of the extent to which SYETP improves 'employability' beyond the period with the training employer. The evidence that does exist suggests that about only 15% to 30% of placements gain further employment on leaving their SYETP position.[14]

Table 6.11, taken from the mail-out survey, outlines the employment status of those who left SYETP as at June 1984. Employment status is separated for those who left prior and after the subsidy period. Some 35.8% of Standard, and 36.6% of Extended placements, had obtained employment on leaving their SYETP employer. There was little difference in rates of employment for those who had left prior to completion of subsidy or after.

The unemployment rate for those who left Extended (60.0%) was higher than that for those who left Standard SYETP (57.2%). Such high levels seem to indicate that the Program has not led to continued employment for those who have undertaken a SYETP placement, irrespective of completion. (Unemployment rates were significantly lower among those who had undertaken a Commonwealth/State SYETP.)

There was considerable variation in outcome by sex and birthplace groups. For those who had completed a Standard SYETP, females (38.1%) were more successful in gaining further employment than males (33.3%), and consequently had a lower

rate of unemployment. For Extended SYETP, males (41.7%) did better in finding employment than females (33.3%).

While Australian-born placements and those of non-English-speaking background had similar rates of employment on leaving their SYETP employer, the unemployment rate for the latter (60.6%) was higher than for Australian-born placements (55.7%). The major reason was that Australian-born trainees were more likely to return to full-time education. For Extended SYETP, the reverse seemed to be the case: the unemployment rate for Australian-born was 58.5% compared to 51.7% for migrants of non-English-speaking background.

Most participants experienced significant periods of unemployment after leaving SYETP. The average length of unemployment at the time of the survey was 17.4 weeks, a sufficient period to make most eligible for a further program. The average period of unemployment for each birthplace group was 17.0 weeks for Australian-born, 16.2 weeks for migrants from English-speaking countries and 20.0 weeks for migrants of non-English-speaking background.

Stretton[15] in his analysis of youth employment and training programs, found that participants who completed a program, when compared to those who left a program early, derived no extra benefit in obtaining subsequent employment. The above analysis clearly confirms this result and highlights that this finding also applies when Standard and Extended SYETP outcomes are compared.

While it is not possible to obtain two samples of respondents with identical characteristics and backgrounds, it is possible to compare samples with similar target characteristics. In order to establish what would be the likely outcome of non-participation, a sub-sample of respondents from the Institute's General Survey of approximately 2,500 young people living in Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide was analysed. The General Survey collected extensive labour force information on the employment status of individuals over a 12-month period.

Data for all 15 to 24-year-olds unemployed for 4 months or more between June and November 1983, and who had not undertaken a training program, were analysed to obtain the employment status in May 1984, some six months later. The results for the data on a total of 135 respondents are contained in Table 6.12. Overall, participants and non-participants had similar employment and unemployment rates, indicating that SYETP participation offered little benefit over non-participation beyond the subsidy period. However, when examined within groups, participation in SYETP appears to have raised substantially the post-employment prospects of females and those born overseas compared to non-participants. In contrast, males and Australian-born placements in SYETP actually experienced higher rates of unemployment on leaving a SYETP employer than did non-participant long-term unemployed. The data suggest that employment prospects for those leaving a SYETP employer operate differently across birthplace and gender groups.

Overview of findings

SYETP has proved successful in providing a continued period of employment for the majority of placements. Retention levels for the first 17 weeks of employment are around 51% to 61% in both Standard and Extended SYETP. Participants believed they gained self-confidence and work experience from their employment, but little in the way of on-the-job training or skills which were transferable to another employer. Overall, participants felt they had benefited from their participation in SYETP. Placements in Commonwealth/State SYETP fared better than those in private placements, both in completion of their placements and perceived benefits from them.

Table 6.11: Current employment status of those who left SYETP (June 1984)

	Standard					Extended					Commonwealth/State				
	Emp.	Unemp.	FT* study	Other NLF*	No. of people	Emp.	Unemp.	FT* study	Other NLF*	No. of people	Emp.	Unemp.	FT* study	Other NLF*	No. of people
Completion															
Prior to 17 wks	34.8	59.2	2.3	3.7	135	36.7**	58.3**	3.3**	1.7**	60**	57.1	28.6	14.3	-	7
17 wks and after	35.3	57.5	5.2	2.0	153	-	-	-	-	-	40.0	53.3	-	6.4	30
Prior to 34 wks	-	-	-	-	-	38.9	56.6	2.7	1.8	113	-	-	-	-	-
34 wks and after	-	-	-	-	-	22.7	77.8	-	-	18	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	35.8	57.2	4.3	2.7	299	36.6	60.0	2.1	1.3	145	43.2	48.6	2.7	5.4	37
Sex															
Male	33.3	60.3	2.8	3.5	141	41.7	54.2	2.8	1.4	72	23.5	70.6	-	5.9	17
Female	38.1	54.4	5.6	1.9	160	33.3	62.8	2.6	1.3	78	60.0	30.0	5.0	5.0	20
TOTAL	35.9	57.1	4.3	2.7	301	37.3	58.7	2.7	1.3	150	43.2	48.6	5.4	2.7	37
Birthplace															
Australia	32.9	55.7	7.1	4.3	140	37.8	58.5	2.4	1.2	82	29.4	52.9	11.8	5.9	17
ESB	41.1	57.8	-	1.1	90	35.0	62.5	-	2.5	40	44.4	55.6	-	-	9
NESB	33.8	60.6	4.2	1.4	71	41.4	51.7	6.9	-	29	58.3	41.7	-	-	12
TOTAL	35.5	57.5	4.3	2.7	301	37.7	58.3	2.6	1.3	151	42.1	50.0	5.3	2.6	38

Source: Mail-out Survey of SYETP placements

* FT = full time; NLF = not in labour force

**These figures are included in employment status for those who left prior to 38 weeks.

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Table 6.12: Relative outcome of SYETP placement compared to non-placements

Variable	SYETP Mail-out				General Survey sub-sample			
	Emp (%)	Unemp (%)	FT* Study (%)	Other NLF* (%)	Emp (%)	Unemp (%)	FT* Study (%)	Other NLF* (%)
Sex								
Male	37.0	57.6	2.7	2.7	46.2	48.7	1.3	3.8
Female	35.9	58.0	1.6	4.5	26.3	68.4	5.3	-
Birthplace								
Australia	34.5	57.2	3.1	5.2	42.3	55.8	-	1.9
Overseas	38.3	58.3	1.3	2.1	34.9	57.8	1.2	6.1
Total %	36.4	57.8	3.7	2.1	37.8	57.0	4.5	0.7
N	169	268	17	10	51	77	6	1

Sources: Mail-out survey of SYETP participants
AIMA general survey of migrant youth

* FT - full time; NLF - not in labour force

This is the first study to analyse the SYETP experience of migrants by country of origin. It suggests that access to SYETP was substantially higher for the Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries than it was for migrants of non-English-speaking background. The educational levels of trainees of non-English-speaking background were generally superior to those of Australian-born trainees, and most completed schooling in this country. Only a small percentage of those unable to write English, and a tiny proportion of those unable to speak English, were placed under SYETP.

In contrast, the experience of migrants of non-English-speaking background during and after SYETP was broadly similar to that of the Australian-born. However, differences were visible. Completion rates for Standard were generally higher for such migrants than for the Australian-born, but the reverse was true for Extended SYETP. Beyond the subsidy period, birthplace differentials were more apparent. Migrant placements of non-English-speaking background were less likely to remain with their trainee employers beyond 43 weeks. Overall, some 11.0% of Australian-born trainees under Standard and Extended SYETP were with their employers at least that length of time, compared to only 5.7% of trainees of non-English-speaking background.

Although many who completed their subsidy period continued employment with their SYETP employers, when employment eventually ceased with that employer the majority became unemployed again. Comparison of those who left before completing their subsidy period with those who did not, indicate that actual employment had little impact on post-SYETP employer status. On average, about 60% became unemployed and experienced a further 17 weeks of unemployment. However, while the data appear to indicate that Australian-born trainees were actually less likely to find positions after their training than those long-term unemployed not placed on SYETP, the opposite prevails for migrants of non-English-speaking background: their rates of unemployment were lower among SYETP trainees than among those long-term unemployed not placed. The group

which found it hardest to gain access to SYETP were, ironically, the group that appears to have gained most from the scheme. Perhaps this is reflected in perceptions of the Program. Whereas 9.0% of Australian-born, and 9.1% of migrants of English-speaking background, felt they had gained nothing from their training, only 6.7% of migrants of non-English-speaking background felt similarly disillusioned.

Notes:

1. Commonwealth Record, 20-26 September 1976, p.717

2. Ibid, 15-21 August 1977, p.1055.

3. Report of the Auditor-General for the year ended 30 June 1983. (11 October 1983), p.41.

4. DEIR, CES Manual, Vol 6, Program 1, Wage Subsidy Programs, Minute 84/53 (27 June 1984).

5. Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs (January 1985)

6. For example, Hoy, M. Review of five years operation of SYETP (BLMR, 1983); Department of Employment and Youth Affairs SYETP employer study (1980) and SYETP in the private sector: follow-up survey of April 1977 placements (1980).

7. DEIR, CES:Manual, Vol 6, Program 1, Special Youth Employment Training Program (SYETP), Para 6.0502.

8. As recommended by the Interim report of the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs (June 1984).

9. DEIR, CES Manual, op cit para 6.0502.

10. Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs Reducing the risk: unemployed migrant youth and labour market programs (March 1985).

11. DEIR, Submission to the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs: factual papers. (June 1984), p.84

12. Limited data on length of time unemployed at Auburn indicate only a small percentage difference in the distribution of the unemployed by birthplace.

13. Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs, op cit.

14. Bureau of Labour Market Research, Submission to Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs, (1984).

15. Stretton, A. 'The short term impact on participants of youth employment and training programs, Journal of Industrial Relations, 1: 24, 1984, pp.76-90.

MIGRANTS IN THE COMMUNITY YOUTH SUPPORT SCHEME*

Marie Kabala

The administrative structure of CYSS

The Community Youth Support Scheme (CYSS) is a Commonwealth labour market program which provides grants to community-based publicly elected committees to offer young unemployed people a range of activities aimed at increasing their employability and providing them with general support during their unemployment. In 1984/85 there were 319 such CYSS centres in Australia, varying widely in their style of operation and in the activities they offered.

Projects also vary in the clientele they manage to attract, with most centres serving only a limited number of the young unemployed in their locality. That migrant youth are often left out has been a matter of comment since the early phase of the Scheme. Although the CYSS has had four sets of guidelines since its inception in 1976, none of them has been effective in ensuring that the needs of migrant youth were met.

The objective of the Community Youth Support Scheme, as currently described, is 'to encourage communities to assist local unemployed young people to develop their capacity for obtaining and retaining employment, and also to become more self-reliant during periods of unemployment' (DEIR 1982).

The concepts of 'improved employability' and 'employment orientation' are used throughout the guidelines as 'manpower objectives of the Scheme'. They are defined only indirectly, through examples of permissible activities which can be undertaken at a project, and allow for broad interpretations. Suggested activities include

- employment-related activities, eg. sale of articles and work pool arrangements
- training in job skills and in searching for jobs
- work observation and experience
- advice, information and referral services
- help with life skills such as budgeting and nutrition
- job placement, and
- recreation activities.

Projects are managed by publicly elected Local Management Committees (LMC) of which the local Commonwealth Employment Service (CES) Manager is an ex officio member. The committees have considerable autonomy in determining the kinds of activities projects may offer to 'develop the skills, abilities and self-reliance of participants. The emphasis placed on any particular activity will depend on the local management committee's view of the training and personal development needs of the local unemployed young people' (DEIR 1982).

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* The CYSS study was undertaken as an Institute project. Many people have contributed to its completion which I gratefully acknowledge. In particular I would like to thank all CYSS project management, staff and participants who took part in our study. I also wish to acknowledge the advice and assistance which I received from Chris Majewski and Jo Szwarc in the study and preparation of this report. I also thank other Institute staff for conducting field work, and Michael Dugan for his editorial assistance.

Management Committees also have a significant measure of discretion in deciding upon whom to focus project attention, within the specified client group of unemployed - aged over the school leaving age but under 25, and not in full-time education. Attendance at CYSS is voluntary and participants retain unemployment benefits.

Implementation of the programs determined by Local Management Committees is largely the responsibility of Project Officers employed by the Committees. They provide data on activities and numbers of participants to their committees which in turn report on a two-monthly basis to State Offices of the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations (DEIR). Projects are also visited periodically by DEIR Field Officers, whose task is to provide advice and assistance to project staff and committees, and to prepare reports on projects for the relevant State Advisory Committees.

State Advisory Committees are responsible for monitoring the operation, management and development of CYSS in each state. They also consider applications for grants submitted annually by prospective and existing Local Management Committees. Their members comprise a Chairman and young person, both appointed by the Minister for Employment and Industrial Relations; the Regional Director of DEIR; and a nominee of the relevant State Government. Regional CYSS Officers-in-Charge are executive officers of State Advisory Committees. The Committees recommend to the Minister which applications should be approved, taking into account the local labour market situation, the availability of training, recreation and support facilities in areas to be served, the relevance of proposed activities in meeting participants' needs, and the level of existing and anticipated community support.

All applicants for grants are required to indicate, if relevant, what they regard as the special needs of ethnic groups. New applicants are also required to provide details on the target group program design, including courses of English for migrants. Although there is no further specific reference to migrant services in the application for existing projects, applicants are required to relate details of the target group program design to the answers provided in the section on 'needs that the project proposes to meet', which includes the special needs of ethnic groups.

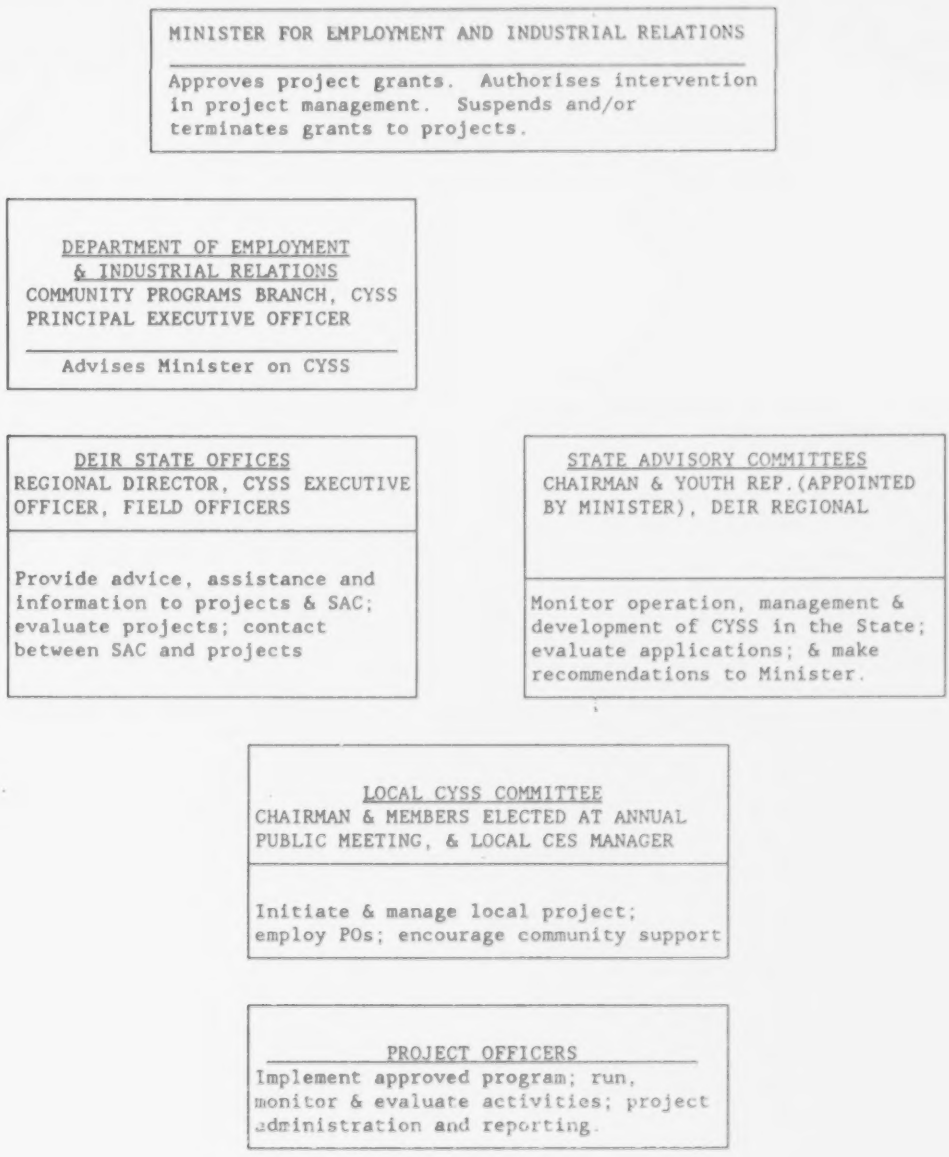
Existing projects applying for grant renewal are also required to report on the project effectiveness. This does not, however, include specific reference to services for ethnic youth. They are required, by reference to their previous application, to comment on any changes in their program and give reasons for these variations.

In evaluating CYSS applications the State Advisory Committees have available to them reports prepared by DEIR Field Officers and local CES offices, with information on issues such as the local labour markets and the place of young unemployed in them. The views of local federal Members of Parliament may also be sought.

The CES 'Information report' is designed to inform prospective applicant bodies and existing Local Management Committees who wish to apply for continuing grants, and is also used by CYSS State Advisory Committees and the Minister in their consideration of the relative need for a project in an area (CES Manual 6.3123). The report is expected to include information on the local youth who may be hampered in their employment prospects by lack of English language skills or cultural differences.

Reports of departmental Field Officers contain two sections relating to migrant youth. One refers to employment and training opportunities available to

Figure 7.1: Administrative structure of CYSS *


MINISTER FOR EMPLOYMENT AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS
Approves project grants. Authorises intervention in project management. Suspends and/or terminates grants to projects.
DEPARTMENT OF EMPLOYMENT & INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS
COMMUNITY PROGRAMS BRANCH, CYSS PRINCIPAL EXECUTIVE OFFICER
Advises Minister on CYSS
DEIR STATE OFFICES
REGIONAL DIRECTOR, CYSS EXECUTIVE OFFICER, FIELD OFFICERS
Provide advice, assistance and information to projects & SAC; evaluate projects; contact between SAC and projects
STATE ADVISORY COMMITTEES
CHAIRMAN & YOUTH REP.(APPOINTED BY MINISTER), DEIR REGIONAL
Monitor operation, management & development of CYSS in the State; evaluate applications; & make recommendations to Minister.
LOCAL CYSS COMMITTEE
CHAIRMAN & MEMBERS ELECTED AT ANNUAL PUBLIC MEETING, & LOCAL CES MANAGER
Initiate & manage local project; employ POs; encourage community support
PROJECT OFFICERS
Implement approved program; run, monitor & evaluate activities; project administration and reporting.

Source: CYSS Guidelines, DEIR January 1983.

* Adapted from J. Freeland, 'Learning from the CYSS campaign', ASWU News, December 1982, p.27.

particularly disadvantaged groups, including migrants. The second requires applicants, where relevant, to give details of how the project's activities will take account of the needs of ethnic groups.

In 1984/85 the annual grants were at three standard levels ($44,000, $72,000, and $100,000), set according to the number of participants projects have been or anticipate attracting daily, and the hours of service per week:

Grant level	Amount	Daily number of participants	Weekly number of hours
Level 1	$44,000	10 - 14	min. 30 hours
Level 2	$72,000	15 - 29)	
		)	min. 40 hours
Level 3	$100,000	30 +)	

Local Management Committees are responsible for the administration of CYSS grants which are provided by the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations for staffing, accommodation and administrative costs of operating CYSS projects. At their discretion, the committees may allocate a part of the grant to reimburse transport costs incurred by participants.

Projects are expected to act as catalysts for further community involvement in assisting unemployed youth. They are encouraged to seek additional financial aid and the contribution of voluntary tuition and material support from their local community and other sources.

The role of CYSS

The Community Youth Support Scheme was introduced in 1976 to financially assist community groups to establish projects providing supportive programs and services for young unemployed people. In the first year, 63 projects were opened and attracted approximately 5,400 participants, with expenditure on the Scheme at $0.57m. Table 7.1 shows the considerable expansion which has occurred subsequently.

The growth of the Scheme has been accompanied by considerable debate about its place in the armoury of Commonwealth employment and training programs. Reflecting the changing and contending views of CYSS' role is the fact that, since its inception, the Scheme has had four different sets of guidelines defining its objectives and administrative arrangements. It has survived a Government decision to terminate it, and has been subject to a series of official evaluations.

The possibility of diverse and even competing conceptions of what CYSS should do is evident from the first guidelines issued. These presented the Scheme as complementing other Government programs for unemployed youth, rather than having a specific role of its own.

Table 7.1: Number of CYSS projects in operation and estimated numbers of participants, 1977/78 - 1984/85

	Projects	Participants	Expenditure ($m)
1977/78	267	35,000	5.70
1978/79	307	45,000	10.71
1979/80	274	50,000	11.60
1980/81	276	55,000	13.80
1981/82	259	55,000	14.20
1982/83	276	65,000	17.88
1983/84	305	70,000	21.35
1984/85	319	85,000	26.10

Source: DEIR Submission to the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs, June 1984, (Annual reports and Budget statements).

Though stressing that 'orientation towards employment must be apparent in all programs', the first guidelines made it clear that this could be interpreted very flexibly, including even 'hobby and interest expanding' activities. The stated employment orientation of the Scheme was contradicted by the fact that projects were precluded from undertaking direct job placement, employment training, job creation and the production of items for sale. Further, the Scheme was introduced in the Budget statements as a 'social security and welfare program', providing 'unemployment relief', rather than one directly concerned with 'labour and employment' as is the case with other labour market programs.

As a result of the 1977 national CYSS evaluation which raised concerns about 'the role of the Scheme in an overall strategy of assistance for young people', new guidelines were introduced in 1978. They replaced the previous broad aim of CYSS to provide 'supportive programs and services' for the young unemployed with the aim of providing 'employment-directed programs, community service work and recreation activities'.

The 1978 guidelines were much more specific and less flexible than their predecessors . Although they strongly emphasised the employment orientation of the Scheme and denounced its general welfare function, they still did not allow job placement activities, formal job skills training, or the production of goods for sale. Prominent in the guidelines was an extended list of activities prohibited at CYSS projects - specialised counselling, activities which hinder participant ability to seek full-time employment, imparting of political, religious or philosophical beliefs to participants, and activities involving unusual risk, such as the use of chain saws.

This second set of guidelines was strongly criticised by many involved in CYSS projects as too rigid and restrictive. CYSS was again evaluated and given a third set of less proscriptive guidelines in December 1979. These stressed the supportive character of the Scheme in assisting communities in their responses to the needs of the young unemployed, and provided only broad guidance on suitable activities.

In August 1981, having decided that the education and training schemes should be given higher priority than supportive activities, the government announced its decision to terminate CYSS. The decision evoked a national 'Save CYSS Campaign' which presented numerous arguments for retention of CYSS, with

emphasis on its supportive role that filled an important need in the lives of many unemployed, particularly in the context of deteriorating employment prospects for teenagers.

Following the campaign, it was decided to continue with the Scheme and for the guidelines to be reviewed. A Task Force was established to undertake consultations with a wide range of groups representing community interests and advise on new guidelines. In January 1982 a fourth set of guidelines was introduced, incorporating recommendations of the Task Force on objectives and activities. These guidelines, which are still in force, strongly emphasise the employment orientation of the Scheme.

Two recent reports on CYSS have again raised the role of the Scheme in the context of provision of services for youth.

Professor Byrne's report on girls and women in CYSS speaks of a 'conceptual muddle' about what CYSS has become, what it should be, and what its current objectives are. In particular, in the face of long-term youth unemployment, projects were uncertain and at variance in their perception of the extent to which CYSS was or should be a work preparation scheme, or a scheme to provide a range of personal services to young people at risk. Moreover, the Scheme was 'having to fill the gaps of inadequate State services for young people by way of youth clubs, youth and community centres, counselling and advice services and recreational facilities' (Byrne 1983, p.205). The results were considered unsatisfactory.

The report identified three broad types of project which 'represent a continuum from strongly work-oriented and structured through to totally unstructured social welfare centres'. For the short term, it recommended that projects should be required to attain some degree of specialisation through defining closely their objectives and developing courses and activities which would aim either at work preparation or personal development, or a combination of both.

For the long-term, the report saw the need for the development of a professionally qualified, permanent youth service, to be planned through consultation between DEIR, the Commonwealth Department of Education and Youth Affairs, state governments and other relevant bodies.

In May 1984, the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs released its interim report. The Committee recorded that its 'overwhelming impression' of CYSS was that 'there is a great deal of confusion surrounding the program, both in terms of its aims and objectives, and in terms of the roles of the DEIR, State and local management committees, and the projects'.

The Committee considered it unrealistic for CYSS projects to provide the wide range of services which they were supplying, and that clarifying the objectives of CYSS was a priority.

The long-term development of the Scheme was seen to follow the Byrne Report suggestions and it was recommended that 'CYSS be developed into a permanent Australian Youth Service involved in a range of issues and action affecting the young'.

The final report of the Committee of Inquiry (January 1985) elaborated the proposal for a national youth service, to provide advice, assistance and referral services and act as a focal point for co-ordinating local services to young people. It recommended that proposals for an Australian Youth Service be developed by the Office of Youth Affairs (OYA) in consultation with state and local governments and other relevant bodies, and that OYA report to the

Commonwealth Government on the most appropriate administration arrangements for the Service, with a view to implementation by 1986.

As a result, the Australian Youth Service Consultation Team was established. Its report, issued in May 1985, found that there was a general consensus that CYSS was not 'an appropriate vehicle on which to build an Australian Youth Service [and that] CYSS must retain its focus on the long-term unemployed and others particularly disadvantaged in the labour market'. No significant changes to CYSS were proposed.

Methodology of the CYSS study

The CYSS study reported here was undertaken as part of the Institute's review of labour market programs and services affecting migrant and refugee youth. To meet the terms of reference for this review, the study was designed to assess:

- the broad functioning of CYSS in terms of its stated objectives
- the functioning of the Scheme in relation to migrant and refugee youth
- the appropriateness of existing administrative arrangements of the Scheme
- the appropriateness of the current parameters of CYSS given the range of identifiable needs.

An evaluation of the broad functioning of the Scheme and its administrative arrangements was seen as an essential component of the study. It was felt to be inappropriate to discuss accessibility and suitability of CYSS to migrant/refugee youth without assessing the operation of the Scheme as a whole.

Evaluating CYSS

The nature of the Community Youth Support Scheme is itself a bar to generalised evaluation of its effectiveness. Although CYSS operates under general Commonwealth guidelines, its objectives are subject to broad interpretation. As it is intended to be strongly based in the local community and expected to respond to particular local conditions, projects can place different emphasis on various aspects of the Scheme and offer different services. Each CYSS centre operates in relation to the perceived requirements of its local client group; its mode of operation being influenced by the attitudes of its committee, its Project Officers, and the people who participate in its programs. Therefore, projects vary enormously, ranging from those offering highly structured and employment-oriented programs to those operating as casual drop-in centres.

It was felt that in order to acquire a better understanding of the way in which a CYSS project worked, discussions with Project Officers and observations of activities at various centres should be undertaken. A pilot study was conducted by means of visits to eight CYSS projects in Victoria. In addition, a week-long participant observation study was conducted at one project.

Sample

On the basis of the pilot study findings, it was decided to visit a number of projects around the country, spending two days at each centre, during which

interviews with Project Officers, participants and Local Management Committee members would be conducted. As our focus was on migrant and refugee youth, only those projects in areas of high concentration of migrant youth were chosen for the study. The following sampling criteria were applied:

For metropolitan areas:

Projects operating in local government areas (LGAs) where the proportion of overseas-born aged 15 to 24 to the whole of the 15 to 24-year-old population was larger than 30% and where the number of 15 to 24-year-old overseas-born was greater than 1,500.

For non-metropolitan areas:

Projects operating in LGAs where the proportion of overseas-born aged 15 to 24 to the whole 15 to 24-year-old population was larger than 17% and where the number of 15 to 24-year-old overseas-born was greater than 1,500.

The criterion of comparatively high numbers of migrant youth was applied to ensure the significant presence of the target group in the given area, and the criterion of proportion was used to ensure significant density of migrant youth.

There were 26 CYSS projects operating in such areas in Australia. It was intended to visit all of them. However, after a number of projects in two states had been visited, it became clear that a high migrant population area was no guarantee of migrant needs being recognised and catered for at a CYSS project. Although varied, some comparable patterns could be observed in the operation of projects. At that stage it was felt that it would be more appropriate to focus on projects which were catering for migrants, especially those of non-English-speaking background. State Advisory Committees were approached and asked to identify such projects in their states. Where this information was not made available, informal networks were used.

Altogether, seventeen CYSS projects in five states were visited, all of them located in areas of high migrant youth density. In total in Australia, overseas-born youth constitute about 17% of all those aged 15 to 24; in the areas in which the surveyed CYSS projects were located, the proportion ranged from 18.8% to 41.5%. Table 7.2 gives details of all projects visited during the study.

Individual interviews were conducted with 57 CYSS staff [48 Project Officers, 2 Migrant Workers, 3 clerical assistants, 4 sessional instructors] and 136 CYSS participants. All Local Management Committees were invited to discuss with us issues relating to the operation of their projects. Fifteen such group discussions were held and one LMC also prepared an additional written submission.

Migrant and refugee youth participation in CYSS

Historical perspective

Concern about the participation of overseas-born youth in CYSS, and the extent to which projects have met the needs of these young people, dates from the early phase of the Scheme. In 1977, the National Evaluation Study of CYSS by the Department of Employment and Industrial Relations reported that migrants were one of the groups projects found most difficult to attract.

Though this report made no specific recommendations in this regard, the CYSS guidelines issued in 1978 contained a new section on what local committees proposing projects 'must show', in relation to the identification of the needs of the target groups to which the projects are directed. It pointed particularly to 'an analysis of matters such as the following which will emerge from discussions with potential participants about their needs'. One of the identified matters was 'ethnic background'.

A 1980 study of Migrant youth and unemployment (Jakubowicz) in the southern suburbs of Wollongong looked at two CYSS projects located in an area of particularly high migrant population and found that both had relatively few migrant participants. A 1981 study, CYSS projects in western Sydney (Rendalls) found that:

> In general, participants were un-representative of the unemployed youth of the area. Migrant, ethnic and Aboriginal groups were generally under-represented (Rendalls, para. 1.4).

In the same year, a Task Force of Commonwealth Government officers was appointed to review the guidelines for CYSS. A submission was made to it by the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs which outlined various factors which might inhibit migrant use of CYSS. It proposed a number of steps to overcome obstacles to access, and to make CYSS 'more relevant to the special needs of migrant youth'. DIEA's recommendations included

- DIEA should nominate an officer in each of its Regional Offices who would be available as a consultant to DEIR on means of encouraging migrant youth participation in the programs.
- Multicultural information about CYSS should be on display at or available through recognised service points for migrants.
- DIEA should have an input to training programs for CYSS Project Officers to sensitise them to migrant needs and issues.
- Consideration should be given to the employment of ethnic Project Officers in areas with high concentrations of migrant unemployed, and to the selective use of women ethnic project officers where appropriate.
- Further research should be undertaken into the specific area of migrant youth unemployment, to identify the dimensions of the problem. To facilitate such research, the monitoring of CYSS should be widened to include information on migrant youth participation.

The Task Force report noted that its attention had been drawn to the fact that 'some groups of the young unemployed suffer particular disadvantage in the labour market and that CYSS does not take adequate account of their special needs'. Ethnic youth were identified as one of the groups. The Task Force reported its recognition 'that groups of young unemployed such as young women, migrants and Aboriginals have special needs; the delivery of CYSS to these groups will therefore need to be undertaken in consultation with appropriate community groups, with relevant Commonwealth and State Departments and agencies' (DEIR 1981, p.7).

It reported that the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs had 'requested close co-operation in the development of programs for their client group and...offered to provide support at the local level and assistance with publicity', but the report did not comment upon or recommend the adoption of any of the specific recommendations made in the submission from DIEA.

Table 7.2: CYSS visits sample (a)

LGA	Location	Overseas-born aged 15-24 (b)	Total 15-24	Proportion of total 15-24(%)
NEW SOUTH WALES: Sydney				
Auburn *	Auburn	2,743	8,025	34.2
NEW SOUTH WALES: non-capital city				
Wollongong	Wollongong	6,926	30,492	22.7
VICTORIA: Melbourne				
Brunswick	Brunswick	2,923	9,035	32.4
Footscray	Footscray	2,932	9,094	32.2
Oakleigh	Oakleigh*	4,168	12,352	33.7
Richmond	Richmond	1,738	4,691	37.1
Springvale	Springvale*	4,230	13,264	31.9
St Kilda	Elwood	2,609	8,560	30.5
Coburg	Coburg**	2,368	10,131	23.4
VICTORIA: non-capital city				
Corio	Corio (Norlane)	1,730	9,183	18.8
QUEENSLAND: Brisbane				
Inala	Inala**	802	3,890	20.6
WESTERN AUSTRALIA: Perth				
Armadale	Armadale/Kelmscott	2,338	5,812	40.2
Cosnells	Cosnells	3,539	8,523	41.5
Kalamunda	Kalamunda	1,770	5,584	31.7
Wanneroo	Wanneroo	4,702	12,452	37.8
Belmont	Belmont**	1,493	5,950	25.1
SOUTH AUSTRALIA: Adelaide				
Thebarton	Thebarton**	495	2,036	24.1

(a) To ensure confidentiality, projects have been represented in the report by coded numerical names.
(b) Population figures based on the 1981 Census.

* visited during pilot consultations
** visited as reported to cater for migrants.

Subsequent to the Report, the Government agreed to new guidelines for CYSS, which came into force on 1 March 1982, and provided that 'where appropriate, CYSS projects take into account the interests of ethnic groups in their area'. It was also decided that the extent to which projects do this would be a criterion, if relevant, in the consideration of applications for a CYSS grant for future grant periods.

At about the same time the Institute published its Evaluation of post-arrival programs and services (1982), which reported that:

> Information is not available about migrant participation in CYSS, but is believed to be quite low, especially among migrant girls. Information on participation by different groups should be collected by DEYA, and ethnic community groups working with young people should be encouraged to participate in the Scheme. The Department advises that it has recently begun efforts to make the CYSS more accessible to migrant youth and girls.

Further, the Evaluation strongly supported the suggestions for action by DIEA which that Department had made to the Task Force reviewing the guidelines of CYSS.

In 1982, Co.As.It, the Italian Assistance Association, submitted an application for financial assistance to establish an 'Ethnic Support Services Unit' under CYSS. The submission argued that CYSS was not attracting, and doing little for, migrant youth, particularly females. It called for changes within the CYSS structures (eg. cultural sensitisation of project officers, multilingual publicity) to increase the participation of migrants and the effectiveness of the Scheme for them, but suggested that this would not be sufficient. Hence the proposed 'Ethnic Support Services Unit' for which funding was sought.

> The capacity of individual CYSS groups to respond to the multicultural, multilingual nature of their clientele is limited since the general pool of bilingual/bicultural youth support workers in the community is miniscule. The only feasible and practicable option is the provision of a specialized outreach ethnic support unit which could provide consultancy, advisory and training services to individual CYSS groups where project officers are of monocultural/monolingual backgrounds.
>
> Such a proposal in no way absolves individual CYSS groups to meet the needs of their multicultural target groups, e.g. through affirmative action recruitment and ethnically based programming policies. Instead this ethnic support unit should be seen as an attempt to complement initiatives of CYSS committees through acting as a catalyst so that such committees may respond to community needs and expectations reflecting our multicultural reality. (Co.As.It. p.15)

The application was rejected, and instead funding was provided for an action research project on ethnic youth participation in CYSS, under the management of Co.As.It. and three other ethnic community organisations. At about the same time, two other grants were also made for research in how CYSS was meeting the needs of girls and women, and Aborigines.

Findings of the research project on ethnic youth participation in CYSS were published in April 1984 (Overberg). The report found, inter alia:

> Lack of perception of the needs of an ethnic minority clientele seems to pervade the CYSS projects we analysed (Overberg p.50).

> The picture we gained from the perspective of the clientele groups we interviewed complements the CYSS project picture. Most striking is the lack of access that our subjects expressed vis-a-vis CYSS programs. There were various facets to this, the first of which concerns the level of awareness of programs by the parents, girls and youth in the groups we sampled, with the parents and the girls specially ignorant of even the existence of programs like CYSS (Overberg p.51).
>
> The large-scale perception of CYSS programs as inappropriate to their needs represents an implicit, psychological barrier to equitable access by ethnic minority groups (Overberg p.51).

The report recommended a number of administrative changes to improve the Scheme's suitability for ethnic youth. It proposed that CYSS funding be made available to ethnic organisations to operate schemes, either ethno-specific or administered collectively by a range of organisations. Such committees of management would employ ethnic project officers who could work upon request with other CYSS groups in areas of high ethnic density; develop in-service training programs for CYSS staff and management; and act as resource, outreach and information dissemination units for ethnic communities concerned with the employment and education support needs of ethnic youth.

The report also made a number of recommendations relating to CYSS' general ability to attract and assist ethnic youth. These included the development of criteria for selection of project officers and suggested bilingual and intercultural communication skills as desirable qualities, especially in projects serving areas of high migrant density. To increase ethnic involvement in project management, it recommended that LMCs co-opt ethnic organisation representatives, and that CYSS be publicised in community languages using ethnic media. It further recommended the development of an ongoing training program for CYSS staff and management, including a component on ethnic welfare. Finally, it proposed an expansion of a team of departmental field officers to provide support to DEIR and CYSS groups in their services for migrant youth.

The Department circulated the report to CYSS State Advisory Committees, organisations representing CYSS staff and management, all CYSS projects and major ethnic and youth organisations, for information and comment.

The broad conclusions from Professor Byrne's study of CYSS with regard to girls and women have been discussed, however, her report also presented findings specifically related to migrant women:

> We believe that there is convincing evidence...that young women from some ethnic groups are in fact barred by cultural background, parental control or the total unsuitability of their...male-oriented local centre, from benefitting from CYSS.
>
> Even within the 100 or so centres which have been visited or have corresponded it is clear that many are male dominated, most have real problems with programming, few have the resources to deal with the more time consuming needs of the handicapped, rural girls, migrants or other groups needing special outreach (Byrne p.157).
>
> ...few staff have an appropriate level of knowledge about special needs - of women, of the handicapped, of different cultures or of Aboriginal and Islander races (Byrne p.169).

To increase migrant women's participation, Professor Byrne recommended the provision of at least one single-sex CYSS centre in each capital city with a significant multi-ethnic population, to be directed towards defined cultural and ethnic groups. Such centre(s) were proposed to be established for three years on an experimental basis as a net addition to the CYSS national budget, and were to be required to co-operate with a Task Force of researchers to enable monitoring of their operation.

Staff training issues have also been addressed in relation to migrant needs. The Byrne report recommended that DEIR investigate the possibility of regular in-service seminars on a range of specialist issues, such as the needs of migrants. The bodies encouraged to participate in such seminars should include TAFE, CES, CYSS and State Education Departments.

It also recommended a change in the funding procedures. It proposed to introduce Basic Guaranteed Funding (BGF) for population centres over 10,000. Centres would then make a case for supplementary funding which would be awarded in addition to BGF depending on a number of criteria, including concentration of migrant or ethnic groups in the district and special needs of migrant women.

More recently, the Interim report of the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs (1984) advised that the grant arrangements have been the subject of criticism from most parties involved with CYSS. It reported that the current basis of funding, linking grant levels to numbers of participants and not allowing for extra funds in case of particularly disadvantaged groups or areas, makes it difficult for projects to cater for special groups such as migrants, women or Aboriginals.

Subsequently, the Committee of Inquiry recommended that CYSS grants should be modified to provide a base component and supplementary funding for special initiatives. It was argued that initiative grants would go some way towards meeting the calls for needs-based funding. The Government acted on this recommendation and the first special initiative funds were granted in early 1985.

Data on participation

The considerable autonomy of CYSS Local Management Committees in selecting targets for assistance, renders it improbable that CYSS will have as participants a range of youth representative of the eligible population at large. This is confirmed by our research.

Generally it was found that projects do not keep statistics about the ethnic background of their participants. Current guidelines do not make this a specific requirement, asking only that 'adequate records of participants and their participation must be kept'.

Projects themselves determine whether they will record information about birthplace, and attitudes to the collection of such data vary. Of those projects visited by the Institute, five recorded the ethnic backgrounds of participants, and one generally recorded participants' 'nationality'. In no project were overall statistics kept, and Project Officers could only provide estimates of migrant participation. These were not consistent, even within the same project, eg. one Project Officer (in CYSS,8) estimated that at least 50% of participants were migrants, mainly Vietnamese and Timorese, whereas another Project Officer from the same centre estimated that 'more migrants than non-migrants' were participating, 'most of them of Greek, Italian and Yugoslav origin but not many Vietnamese'.

Further difficulties in estimates of migrant participation were that officers were not always aware whether participants were themselves overseas-born or were Australian-born of migrant parents; 'ethnic' and 'migrant' were not always clearly distinguished. Descriptions of participants as 'Greeks', 'Italians' etc. often reflected ethnic origin rather than birthplace; finally terms such as 'second-' and even 'third-generation migrant' were not uncommon.

Bearing these limitations in mind, the information on migrant participation provided by Project Officers can be summarised as follows:

- Three of the 17 projects reported no migrant participants, although they were located in areas of high migrant settlement.
- Five projects reported 'some, but not many' migrants, with four of these projects having high participation rates of 'ethnic youth', or children of migrants.
- Officers at four projects said that migrant participation was high in a number of the activities which they ran and not in others.
- The remaining five projects reported generally high migrant participation, but only one of them attracted youth of non-English-speaking background, the other four being visited mainly by British-born youth.

In the absence of national data, indicators of migrant particiption have been derived from the Institute's youth surveys. The available data confirms the relatively low participation rate of overseas-born youth in CYSS, particularly among those of non-English-speaking background.

The Institute's 1983 General Survey, which interviewed young people in three capital cities, found that only 3% (28 persons) of the 832 respondents unemployed during the previous 12 months had visited a CYSS project, and of these, four were migrants. The 1984 survey found a slightly higher overall participation rate: 8% (54 persons) of 671 respondents unemployed in the previous 12 months had been to a CYSS project. Nevertheless, the rate of participation of migrants from non-English-speaking countries did not exceed 5%, compared with 12% for Australian-born and 10% for migrants of English-speaking background (Table 7.3). This is in spite of the unemployment rate being higher among migrant youth than among the Australian-born youth.

Table 7.3: Participation in CYSS by those unemployed in previous 12 months, June 1983 and June 1984

	Australian-born		Overseas-born				Total	
			ESB*		NESB*			
	1983	1984	1983	1984	1983	1984	1983	1984
Number unemployed	491	254	62	40	279	377	832	671
Number of CYSS participants	24	30	2	4	2	20	28	54
Proportion participating in CYSS	5%	12%	3%	10%	1%	5%	3%	8%

Source: 1983 and 1984 General Surveys
* ESB = English-speaking background, NESB = non-English-speaking background

Factors affecting migrant participation

The data available indicate a comparatively low participation rate in CYSS of young people from non-English-speaking backgrounds. It also suggests that the level and pattern of migrant youth participation varies among projects.

There were projects, which in spite of operating in areas of high migrant density, did not attract migrant participants. There were others which attracted significant numbers of migrants but not from all groups experiencing unemployment.

A number of factors seem to account for these variations in the level and pattern of migrant participation. Of these, the social dynamics of project centres, relevance of activities offered, and the public image of CYSS appear to be of considerable significance.

Social dynamics

The social dynamics of centres are among the most powerful factors affecting patterns of participation. CYSS projects often evolve as centres where social and recreational activities are key attractions for young people to participate. If migrant youth are left out, it is either because of outright hostility from the dominant group or simply because they do not feel 'at home' at a particular centre.

In one project (CYSS 12) many participants expressed open hostility towards migrants. Project officers were aware of these attitudes and explained them as a case of 'blaming the victim' for unemployment. It was hoped that migrants would participate if there was more physical space to allow for 'separate sections for different groups'.

Another comment made was that if participants were involved in doing something practical together, as opposed to mere socialising, ethnic backgrounds would, perhaps, not matter so much and prejudices might become less evident.

This theory was not quite confirmed in a few centres which organised structured activities and attracted migrant participants. It was found that projects which ran welding courses attracted Vietnamese-born participants. Whereas in some projects this situation did not create any tension, there were others where no intergroup mixing took place and 'you either had an exclusive group of Vietnamese or of Australians' (CYSS 11). CYSS 1 reported fights between Vietnamese-born and other participants over the use of a welder. They were resolved by Project Officers only when the Vietnamese 'were allowed to take over': they were allocated a Vietnamese welding instructor and left to themselves. CYSS 8 noted that 'there was no racial friction when Australian and migrant kids were together under supervision but as soon as they were left by themselves, they started fighting for everything'.

The CYSS 17 Project Officer observed that there were many new arrivals in the area but they did not come to CYSS. There were a few Vietnamese migrants who had intended to participate in courses, but after visiting the project and meeting the people there they had not returned. In her opinion, the project must have been a culture shock for them, as it was so wild and aggressive.

Generally it has been found that any single CYSS project can assist only some groups of the unemployed in its locality. If a project concentrates on job skills development, providing full-time, highly structured courses, people are

attracted to it by the possibility of enhancing their employment prospects. Such CYSS projects might offer courses resembling those of TAFE colleges, or indeed use TAFE premises for conducting their courses. Participation in such organised courses does not entail many interpersonal contacts nor does it involve 'socialising'.

There are, however, not many projects of this nature. Most CYSS projects also aim at supporting the individual during his/her period of unemployment. Such projects become places where young people can receive personal support in addition to whatever skills development they may be offered. They provide a social scene where relationships develop among participants and Project Officers. It is only natural for young people to seek companionship of others with similar backgrounds, who share similar experiences and face similar problems. Once the atmosphere of a CYSS is created, newcomers either like it or not, either fit in or are rejected. Although the number of participants may increase, their 'range' is not altered.

Considerable changes in direction generally occur only with a change of the project's location and/or type of accommodation; with changes of Project Officers; or to a lesser extent with changes among LMC members. New or 'different' participants are then attracted and the project develops according to their needs and lifestyles.

Relevance of activities

Projects' selection of target groups is not always deliberate. Many centres have objectives other than to 'generally support the unemployed', thus retaining a high degree of flexibility and responsiveness. Relatively few projects conduct 'market research' among potential participants but rather try to respond to those who make contact with the centre. A result is that the program of activities is determined not only by what committees and project staff see as the young people's needs, but also by how the local youth see them. As such perceptions, as well as the needs themselves, vary between various groups of youth, no centre can be attractive to all of the young unemployed in its locality.

Relatively few projects conducted activities specifically aimed at attracting migrant youth. Some project staff believed that, if migrants can speak English, there is not much difference between their needs and those of other participants. Therefore, they did not see the need for special provisions and believed that any 'preferential treatment' or 'positive discrimination' would not be beneficial to the youth themselves. Some considered other groups of youth as being in greater need of assistance: others said their projects lacked the resources to cater for migrants.

It needs to be said, however, that special activities designed for young migrants do not automatically attract them, nor does the absence of such activities inevitably preclude their participation. Among the projects visited there were several which tried to adapt their programs but, nevertheless, did not succeed in attracting significant numbers of migrant youth. Conversely, some projects which had made no special attempt to do so did attract migrant participants.

It appears that the participation of migrants depended also on the balance of the types of programs and activities run by projects. The general belief of CYSS staff was that migrants were more interested in structured activities where they could learn practical skills than in the support services provided.

This belief was confirmed by interviews with CYSS participants conducted for the study. While a wide range of reasons for attending CYSS were given by both Australian- and overseas-born youth, there were marked differences (Table 7.4). The learning of skills was the most important for, and was far more frequently mentioned by, those born in non-English-speaking countries than it was for youth born in Australia and other English-speaking countries. 'Something to do' rated far fewer mentions among those of a non-English-speaking background. Meeting people was the second most important reason for attending among this group. In this they were similar to Australian-born youth, and even expressed their need for companionship more frequently, but were markedly different from migrants from English-speaking countries who did not consider an opportunity to meet people as a particularly important aspect of CYSS.

Table 7.4: Percentage distribution of participants' main reasons for attending CYSS, by birthplace*

Reason	Australian-born	ESB migrants	NESB migrants	Total
Meet people	71	39	77	68
Something to do	74	82	38	64
Find work	9	33	6	11
Get work experience	8	11	-	6
Learn skills	58	56	85	64
Study subject of interest	3	-	18	6
Financial support	4	-	-	2
Total Number	80	18	34	132

Source: CYSS Projects Study
* Respondents gave up to 3 answers; percentages refer to birthplace groups

The public image of CYSS

Perceptions about the relevance of CYSS activities to their interests and needs is an important element of a broader factor influencing migrant participation in the Scheme - its image. Among CYSS practitioners there was agreement as to only one factor influencing the participation of female migrants: whether activities were conducted in single-sex groups. While it is clear that some were happy to participate in activities with males, it is apparent that significant numbers of others strongly preferred separate programs. These preferences were shared by many of the Australian-born young women, though preference for separation is likely to be stronger among some migrant groups, especially those where parents do not allow their daughters to take part in mixed group activities.

A number of Project Officers interviewed for the study felt that many migrants had negative attitudes towards CYSS. This was attributed to a number of factors, particularly the absence of structured work-skills training in many centres. In addition, it was said that migrants did not accept the realities of long-term unemployment, and did not understand the nature of CYSS and the supportive services it offered. The poor state of repair and appearance of many projects' premises was seen as contributing to that negative image.

It was argued by some Project Officers that CYSS was particularly unpopular among migrants because of 'a stigma that surrounded it, the ocker image it has acquired and a common belief that CYSS was for the proletariat' (CYSS 12). It was noted in a number of projects that CYSS was unacceptable to migrant parents.

Some of these perceptions were confirmed in the Institute's community consultations and its seminar on youth unemployment which was attended by young people from 20 different ethnic backgrounds. Those consulted about CYSS were more likely to be critical than favourable. CYSS was criticised for being Anglo- and male-oriented, chaotic, unstructured and not welcoming. Attitudes of Project Officers were also criticised as not appealing to migrant youth. It was argued that Project Officers themselves enjoyed a flexible style of work whereas migrants preferred structured organisations. Further, some people felt that racist attitudes were evident in some projects. CYSS was perceived as a 'rock bottom place' with which some people did not want to identify. This view was reinforced by a related perception that people were referred to CYSS as a last resort when everything else failed.

It was observed that CYSS lacked community support and that migrant parents could not accept the way CYSS operated, viewing it sometimes as the 'unemployed union'. It was noted, however, that in a case where a CYSS project had managed to get support of parents and the community and offered some programs seen to be worthwhile (a child care course) it was operating very well.

It appears that to some extent the poor image of CYSS among migrant communities can be explained by the communities' limited involvement with the Scheme, and because very little publicity about CYSS has been disseminated in languages other than English. The Department of Employment and Industrial Relations has produced no multilingual information about CYSS. Of the projects visited in the course of the present study, only three had publicised themselves through ethnic radio and press - one in Greek, one in Italian, one in Turkish.

Similarly, outreach activities conducted by projects rarely were directed specifically at migrants. Only one project (CYSS 3) included in its program of talks to schools a compoment on problems and conflicts arising from a bicultural background, amd emphasised CYSS services which would support young people of such backgrounds. Wherever migrant-directed outreach was undertaken, it was believed that additional staff with specific skills were needed to make it a successful process.

The study found that few Local Management Committees had migrant members, and that few projects had sought involvement from migrant communities. It may well be that something of a vicious circle has developed - a number of officers felt that there was little point in pursuing migrant involvement because migrants showed little enthusiasm for the Scheme. In turn, their limited involvement means that ethnic groups had little opportunity to learn about the Scheme or to influence its development so that CYSS could correspond more closely to their attitudes and values.

Programs and services offered at CYSS

CYSS guidelines identify the following types of work-related activities which may be offered at the project:

- work-pool arrangements enabling participants to undertake casual and part-time work
- sale of articles made at the project
- work observation and experience, including community service work

. incidental job placement with emphasis on casual and part-time work
. training in job skills and in searching for jobs.

All these activities were offered at various centres visited for the study although there was no project which offered all of them. The following table indicates how many projects offered particular work-related programs.

Table 7.5: Work-related programs offered at CYSS*

Type of program	Number of projects
1. Work pools	7
2. Odd jobs	10
3. Job placement/job creation	6
4. Sale of articles	4
5. Work observation/experience	6
6. Community service work	3
7. Work-skills training	13
8. Job-search training	8

Source: CYSS Projects Study
* Total number of projects: 17

Structured training courses

Structured courses are organised for a specific period of time ranging from one to several weeks, require regular attendance and, if the course envisages a certificate on its completion, participants are usually expected to achieve a certain level of proficiency in the field in which they are being trained. Thirteen projects offered such courses, 7 of them awarded certificates. Subjects ranged from child care training, to computers, to bar attendant courses and welding.

Some of these courses were full-time for a week or two, others entailed 2 hours per week or two days per week over 3 to 12 weeks. It was generally recognised that courses which ran over many weeks were too long and did not maintain participation. It was often emphasised that TAFE ran long-term courses and CYSS was catering for those who preferred short courses.

The credibility of the certificate awarded at the end of the course depended on the reputation of the centre but in most cases, as it was put by the CYSS 13 Project Officer, 'the certificate did not carry much weight but did show that a young person was motivated'. Some participants, however, expressed their expectations that they might find a job in the field of training since some certificate was better than none, and it indicated that they had acquired some skills. It was difficult to gauge how successful these courses were in helping participants to find a job, since many of them never visited the centre after they had finished the course. Those who stayed on were obviously still unemployed and sometimes participated in other courses that were offered.

On-going training courses

On-going programs were offered every week for an hour or two. Participants could join in or drop out whenever they wished, the courses did not have any

pre-planned schedules and tuition was provided on an individual basis. In many cases this simply meant that, on a given day at a given time, the equipment and an instructor were available and those willing to acquire or improve their skills were welcome to participate. It was with these programs that attendance was unpredictable. Sometimes up to 10 people would come, while on other occasions no-one would turn up.

On-going courses were offered in similar areas to structured courses (typing, computers, car mechanics, building, welding etc.) with the additions of job search and interviewing techniques training. Here again, programs varied between projects, ranging from making newspapers with job vacancies available to participants and encouraging them to go through them, to sessions which included mock interviews with experienced guest tutors, as well as application and curriculum vitae writing.

Work observation/experience

Work experience was organised in conjunction with the structured courses as part of the training. Sometimes it was just for a day, sometimes for a week or two. In some cases young people retained the job after work experience.

Another distinct advantage of work experience over training courses was that if participants stayed in a job for some time, they were given references by the employer. These had a potential of breaking a vicious circle of which so many young people complained: that you cannot get a job without experience and you cannot get experience without a job. It was believed that employers valued references from a work place more highly than a certificate from a CYSS course.

Work observation, where participants visited places of work, was tried by only one project (CYSS 16) but the program did not attract many participants. Those who participated could not see much value in it and simply got bored.

Community service work

Community service work was encouraged by only three projects: two in WA and one in Victoria. In general, Project Officers objected to the idea that unemployed young people gathered at CYSS should be treated as a source of free labour. They argued that those young people were unemployed and needed money badly, so that asking them to involve in unpaid work was unfair.

Many Project Officers admitted that voluntary work was a 'touchy subject'. It was generally believed to be exploitation. On the other hand, there were many young people who believed that getting work experience through community work would increase their chances of getting a job.

Sale of articles

Sale of articles was connected with arts and craft courses where different articles were produced by participants, or with cooking classes where food was made for sale at street stalls. Four projects attempted selling items, dividing any profits among the participants. There were occasions when no profit was made but even then the activity was seen as worthwhile because the young people enjoyed it and the CYSS project was making its presence felt in the community.

Odd jobs

Ten projects were involving their participants in occasional odd jobs. Some work opportunity was provided in projects themselves, with participants paid small wages for manning the switchboard or cleaning the centre. Such opportunities were seen as very useful because they provided additional income as well as work experience. Occasional requests for workers were received from local residents or community groups and participants were then referred to them. These activities included pamphlet delivery, various domestic jobs like cleaning backyards, washing windows, car cleaning, and in one case picking fruit. One project, through a LMC member, established contact with the ABC who were sometimes employing 'extras' from CYSS, and once invited participants to the discussion on the Commonwealth Budget.

Work pools

Seven projects organised work pools to act as agencies for any casual work that was brought to their notice. It is interesting that, while it was mostly the WA projects that provided work experience for their participants, the work pools were in six Victorian projects and in one in New South Wales. Work pools differed from odd job programs as they were conducted on a regular basis, had regular clients and involved a considerable number of participants.

The considerable difference between patterns of participation in structured courses and work pools was that participants of structured courses usually left the project once the course was finished, whereas work pools provided regular work opportunities and attracted regular participation. If participants left, it was usually because they found permanent employment.

Work pools were organised in various ways, ranging from very small-scale projects to quite advanced co-operatives in areas such as gardening, handyman services, printing, catering, child minding and furniture removal. All such schemes were assessed by their organisers as successful in providing cheaper services to the community, especially to its low-income sector, and in providing work opportunities for CYSS participants.

A number of Project Officers expressed a view that they would like to see work co-operatives develop in CYSS projects. According to the current guidelines 'direct financing of work co-operatives' by a CYSS project is prohibited. Many Project Officers saw this as unreasonable and believed that development of work co-operatives was the only successful way of solving some of the problems with which unemployed CYSS participants were faced.

Job placement and job creation schemes

Four projects attempted placing participants in temporary or long-term jobs using their community contacts. Work experience was sometimes seen as indirect job placement because some participants retained the job as a result.

Job placement was usually conducted on a small scale, with occasional success, but one project (CYSS 8) had developed it into the main aspect of its operation. According to the Project Officer's record, during 21 months of the job link operation 520 jobs were offered. Of these, about 20% were full-time, and the rest part-time and casual.

A number of CYSS-initiated projects applied for various State and Commonwealth grants (such as EIP, WPP and CEP) to develop a variety of programs. The most

interesting case here was CYSS 8 where it was hoped that, if all applications were accepted, the project would provide 30 to 40 full-time positions across a number of community-based programs.

Developing self-reliance

The following activities are specifically identified in the Guidelines as suitable in responding to the personal development needs of participants:

- help with life skills such as budgeting and nutrition
- advice, information and referral services
- incidental recreation activities.

Table 7.6 indicates general categories of self-reliance programs and the number of projects which were running them:

Table 7.6: Self-reliance programs offered at CYSS*

Type of program	Number of projects
1. Art and craft	16
2. Budgeting/nutrition/health	7
3. Advice/information/referral	17
4. Recreation/outings/sport	11
5. Literacy/numeracy training	3
6. Travelling allowance and financial assistance	5

Source: CYSS Projects Study
* Total number of projects: 17

Art and craft

Only one project (CYSS 12) did not provide art and craft activities. These were the most common CYSS activities, which were usually designed to keep participants busy with something rewarding and creative. In a few projects, arts and crafts were seen as motivation building exercises, or means of supplementing participants' income by selling the articles produced. In one project (CYSS 16) expecting and young mothers participated in sewing classes where, under the supervision of an instructor, they were sewing clothes for their babies. The financial support these classes provided was seen as a very important factor by the participants.

Art and craft courses were conducted in many areas, of which the following were found in more than one project: photography, music, drama, pottery, sewing, screen printing, mural painting, jewellery making, woodwork, leather work and lamp making.

Budgeting, nutrition, health

Project Officers were concerned with their participants' ability to maintain a healthy diet. Inadequate nutrition was not only a result of low income but also of a lack of basic shopping and cooking skills.

In five projects basic cooking classes were introduced to enable participants to cook healthy and cheap meals. This was sometimes accompanied by shopping skills courses where participants were instructed about the nutritional and monetary value of food articles.

Some projects also organised workshops on health and sexuality. Health subjects were often discussed as part of the child care courses.

Advice, information, referral

All projects saw themselves as resource centres where young people could receive advice and information on everyday problems. Quite often it was found difficult to provide advice without counselling in cases where people were obviously distressed and in need of help. Many Project Officers complained that individual counselling took a lot of their time and that, in a sense, this time could not be accounted for as the guidelines did not envisage a counselling role for CYSS projects.

Advice and information was provided in legal matters, social security, consumer rights, financial matters, rights of the unemployed, labour market programs (especially EPUY), TAFE courses, tranport systems and in many other areas. Usually the emphasis was on increasing the participants' knowledge of community resources.

In cases where help could not be provided by Project Officers, participants were referred to appropriate agencies. The variety of referrals reported to this study indicates the range of problems with which young people were coming to CYSS: legal aid, housing and accommodation, emergency aid, drug and alcohol problems, psychiatric problems, consumer rights, training and educational courses provided at TAFE, EPUY and other CYSS projects.

Literacy and numeracy

Literacy and numeracy training was provided either in conjunction with office skills/typing classes and job application writing or simply on demand. Three projects provided regular literacy and numeracy assistance and a few more tried to be responsive to the participants' needs in this area, providing individual tuition when necessary.

Travelling allowance and financial assistance

Projects can reimburse travelling expenses of participants but finances for this purpose have to be allocated out of the general grant the project receives. Of those visited, only four projects provided travelling allowance.

Transport was a recognised problem in many areas. There were projects, especially in Western Australia, which attracted participants from a wide area, even as far away as 30km (CYSS 11). Most participants did not have cars and had to rely on public transport.

Travelling allowance was not the only form of financial assistance available. Two projects established emergency loan funds and they also provided free lunches to participants. Sometimes Project Officers made their cars available to participants to remedy the poor public transport in their area. On the other hand, in quite a few projects, participants had to pay a small fee for courses.

Recreation, outings, sport

Many centres had a table-tennis or pool-table, cards, chess or scrabble set for participants to use in their leisure time. There was usually a lounge room or section where participants could have a cup of coffee, read a newspaper and chat. Only a few centres, where Project Officers did not believe that CYSS should have a drop-in function, did not provide such facilities.

Video feature film screenings were organised regularly in two projects. Dinner nights and barbecues were sometimes given out for participants and their friends. Occasionally picnics, day trips, horse riding or camps were organised.

A few projects involved their participants in sport and fitness activities. Aerobics and self-defence classes were conducted usually as separate courses for women. Some of these projects took part in community sport competitions.

Programs and adaptations for migrant youth

The majority of 57 CYSS staff interviewed for the study did not question the basic argument that CYSS should cater for migrant youth. It was recognised, however, that for a variety of reasons some centres were not successful in this role. This recognition did not automatically imply that Project Officers were concerned about the situation. Further, even if they were, quite often they did not know how to solve the problem.

No need identified

There were three projects (all in WA) which did not consider introducing any special provision for migrant and refugee youth of non-English-speaking background because there were few such migrants living in the area. These projects had a significant proportion of British migrants who were considered to have no special needs requiring special provision.

One of these projects (CYSS 13) had attracted five Asian migrant participants. It was believed that if more such migrants participated, special courses would be organised for them to overcome initial barriers of shyness and language difficulties, and then an attempt would be undertaken to have them mix with other participants.

Project Officers in the other two centres were against any 'preferential treatment' or 'positive discrimination' towards any group. Both projects saw no special needs of migrants other than English language difficulties. One of the Project Officers (CYSS 9) would refer participants to English language courses if needed but was not sure whether such classes were locally offered.

Another Project Officer (CYSS 7) envisaged a need for additional support if English classes were to be run at CYSS. It was suggested that perhaps special centres for non-English-speaking migrants would be needed, at least until they learned English. On the other hand, the Senior Project Officer admitted that migrants of non-Englilsh-speaking background would not be welcomed at first. Group discussions with participants would have to be organised to overcome these problems and eliminate friction. It was emphasised that migrants could not stay long as a group: they would have to mix with the others.

In this instance the discussion was held in a purely hypothetical context (i.e. if there were significant numbers of migrants of non-English-speaking background in the area) and, as such, may not be particularly significant. It

was found, however, that the LMC's perception of the situation was different. It was observed that 'there are migrants in the community, the point is whether they want to come'. Although the area served by the CYSS was populated largely by British migrants, there were sizeable communities of Macedonian and Italian background. Lack of migrant presence in the centre was a matter of concern to some of the LMC members. In this particular case it appeared to be inability to attract migrants rather than there being few of them in the community that accounted for their absence from the project.

Attempts that failed

Insensitivity to migrant youth was also observed in other projects. CYSS 12 was visited by the Council Migrant Worker who was quite critical of the suitability of the project to migrants. Project officers were invited to take part in a joint submission to set up some services for migrants. They could not take this offer 'not because they did not care but it was a very busy period and they could not work on it'. It was discovered that no-one at the CYSS had read the submission but the Project Officer was 'sure that it was somewhere around in the centre'.

Three projects tried to attract migrants by organising craft activities. It was found that, although they came at first, their interest in craft programs could not be maintained. CYSS 16 opened an annex for migrant craft courses but after some months it had to be closed as participation dropped off to 1 or 2 participants daily. CYSS 8 tried to organise craft and aerobic classes for migrant women. They came once and never returned. CYSS 15 employed a migrant worker under the Wage Pause Program to run craft activities for migrants, but this project failed as well. Its organisers believed that developing skills was the role of TAFE, while CYSS was meant to help migrants increase their self-confidence and establish their identities, and make them feel more worthwhile. The emphasis was on the most disadvantaged group, i.e. unemployed migrant women who 'had restrictive backgrounds, were not allowed to go out and had to stay at home doing housework'. It was believed that the general community should be made aware of this situation, and that the women needed to be contacted and given information on the resources available. After a craft course failed to attract migrant participants, screen printing was offered. This activity had, however, only limited success in attracting migrants. The lack of co-operation from ethnic organisations further constrained the development of the project. It was argued that it was difficult to attract migrants as 'they had a stereotyped view, could not accept unemployment and therefore could not accept CYSS'.

Ethnic programs

Some projects organised programs specifically directed at migrants. In these programs the ethnic participants were either encouraged to develop skills and abilities resulting from their bicultural backgrounds or received help in problems particular to these backgrounds. The relatively few such programs were, in most cases, possible only because the projects had secured additional funds from sources other than CYSS.

One project, CYSS 14, ran conversation classes in Italian to encourage participants to keep up first language skills which might prove useful in employment. A grant from the Ethnic Affairs Commission was obtained for this purpose. Another submission was put to CEP to run a bilingual child care course. Bilingual participants were employed as interviewers for the study of the role of railway stations, run in conjunction with a local State College.

CYSS 3 planned to introduce a Greek typing course, and later develop it into a typing service as a great demand for such a service was noted in the area. At the time of this study application for a CEP grant had been submitted to publish a newspaper which would have sections in the three main languages of the area: Greek, Italian and Vietnamese.

CYSS 8 obtained an EIP (Employment Initiatives Program) grant for a video and information project. They produced films dubbed in ten languages and published a directory of services. The project was not completed under the grant. In a planning stage was a computer information base with translations into several languages which was considered to be a more relevant form of information provision. Foreign embassies were to be consulted to find out whether appropriate software was available. At the time of interview, application for a CEP grant had been submitted for this project.

English classes

A number of projects organised English courses for their migrant participants, particularly those recently arrived.

CYSS 8 ran English classes for about two months for Vietnamese migrants. They were organised by a Vietnamese sessional worker and proved quite popular, attracting 15 participants. There was an attempt to organise classes again the following year but only three people enrolled, although advertisements had been out for two weeks. Project Officers suggested that there were many English classes around and that was why the response was poor.

CYSS 17 received a grant from the Ethnic Affairs Commission to run pre-employment English classes for migrants, in conjunction with the Adult Migrant Education Services (AMES). The objective was to provide services for migrants within the target group of 15 to 25-year-olds who could not participate in other activities because of English difficulties. The course was introduced in response to the CES Manager's observations that those migrants were most disadvantaged and most difficult to place in employment. The program did not manage to attract target participants. Those who came were either from outside the geographic catchment area or from outside the age group. The Senior Project Officer considered this project to have been unsuccessful and suspected that migrants were so isolated that it was impossible to reach them. Others thought that their needs were adequately catered for by other organisations.

English classes were also attempted by CYSS 11 which attracted Vietnamese migrants to a welding course, and promoted English language learning as an extension of this. Again, after some time, the Vietnamese group dispersed.

CYSS 5 received a Migrant Project Subsidy Scheme grant to run courses specifically for migrants. No decision had been taken at the time of the study as to how to spend the money, but the Senior Project Officer wished to set up a self-access resource centre for migrants. This was intended to include assistance in English for specific purposes. The objective of the proposed program was to build communicative competence in a given area (eg. welding, industrial sewing, etc.). It was envisaged that AMES would provide appropriate language kits (tapes, books and pamphlets) relating to different areas of work. Plans were being made to convert CYSS 5 into a migrant-targeted project whose main objective would be to improve participants' competence in English.

'Traditional' activities

'Traditional' was the word most often used in those projects which attracted migrants. 'Traditional' stood for structured, organised, work or skills-oriented and usually single-sex programs. Not surprisingly, 'traditional' activities (eg. welding and car mechanics for males; child care, typing, and word processing for females) attracted not only migrant but also Australian-born youth.

Supportive services

There were very few centres where Project Officers believed that migrant youth needed any other supportive services than those needed by Australian-born youth. It was assumed that their family structures provided the necessary support and that, if migrants could be attracted to CYSS, it was by structured courses which would equip them with necessary skills to obtain employment.

Those CYSS staff who believed that the needs of migrants went beyond learning English and acquiring employment-related skills tried to attract participants by "traditional" courses, and through these courses help them in other problems they faced. This approach, they said, necessitated respecting ethnic values and cultural differences relating to family life, perception of sex roles, patterns of interpersonal behaviour and understanding migrants' needs and backgrounds. It also required patience and increased effort to help those whose English was not fluent.

There were only four projects which adopted this approach to migrant participants. In three of them there was a staff member allocated to working with migrants; the other project selected ethnic youth as its target group and all staff were required to have the ability to relate to migrants. In the opinion of the Project Officers involved it had been a successful method of approach in all four cases. Given the crucial role that CYSS staff play in creating the atmosphere and profile of each centre, it is not surprising that such sensitivity was found to appeal to young migrants.

The Migrant Worker from CYSS 8 worked with a group of migrant women who were mostly newly arrived, did not speak English well, often had peasant backgrounds, could not find work and were housebound. Her aim was to reduce their alienation and make them more self-reliant. She organised sewing courses for them so that they could have a place to come to and something interesting to do. She soon discovered that working with young women also involved providing child care services for their children. She also appreciated that 'feminist ideology did not work with migrant women'. Their attitudes were different because of family and social tradition and peer group pressure. Instead of trying to influence their attitudes, 'which you are not going to change in one generation anyway', she made the women aware of the services available and spent a lot of time on casework, finding this a successful method of approach.

The same project provided services for Timorese migrants, there being a large Timorese community in the area, most of them new arrivals. The program was run by a Timorese sessional worker. About 15 participants came regularly to the centre, receiving assistance in housing, employment and family reunion matters. As their English was limited, communication was the biggest problem and they were very isolated. Further, according to the worker, "Timorese did not want to make friends with those who did not speak their language". The group applied for a CEP grant to run their own Timorese Community Support Scheme, assisted in their application by the CYSS Project Officer.

CYSS 14 ran a women's program consisting of structured courses which attracted more participants than the quotas allowed. There were also many women who required individual counselling but the Project Officer, who considered the program to have been very successful, did not have time to help all those in need. She was particularly aware of the problems which the girls experienced with their parents, and of the cultural identity conflicts. She was not, however, trying to impose any values on her clients but rather help them solve the problems by providing support and by understanding that 'it is difficult to challenge your parents when you love them'.

CYSS 5 attracted Vietnamese participants to welding and industrial sewing classes. It was recognised that their basic needs were different because of inadequate English and unfamiliarity with the bureaucratic system. Assistance was offered, on an individual basis, in filling forms and handling telephone enquiries. It was further observed by the Project Officer that migrants tended to be more regular attenders than the others. They were very keen on getting work and had "so much energy to better themselves". Yet the problems they faced with "overcoming racial prejudices, of being different", required special attention and sensitivity.

CYSS 3 was targeted towards ethnic youth. It was recognised that their needs varied depending on cultural values and family background. It was felt that what the participants needed most was a place which could offer friendship, vocational and personal advice, information and help. The main objectives were to increase the self-confidence of participants, to make them aware that it was not their fault that they were unemployed, to help them realise that everyone had some talents and encourage them to develop theirs so that they could feel worthwhile. According to the Project Officer individual counselling played a significant role in working towards these objectives.

Ethnic communities' involvement

Local Management Committees are, in at least the formal sense, responsible for the character and operations of CYSS projects. The Committees submit the grant applications, outlining the target groups and services they want to offer, and are the employers of project staff. Committee members are elected annually at public meetings, except for the Manager of the local CES Office, who is an ex officio member of any LMC in the Office's operating area. Additional members may be co-opted if an elected member's position becomes vacant, and may serve for the balance of the term.

With respect to the composition of Committees, the current guidelines specify only that it is 'desirable that Local Management Committees include a representative of a technical training institution in the area, or other educational body'. Previous guidelines were more detailed in their advice. While none mentioned ethnic or migrant groups specifically, they did state, for example, that

> The important point is that the Committee should reflect a range of interests from within the community (DEIR 1979: p.38).

The guidelines operative in 1978 allowed Local Management Committees to co-opt 'appropriate people ... to improve community representation'.

LMC membership

The number of members of LMCs in the study sample varied from nine to twenty. They represented various areas, the most usual being welfare, social security,

education, local government, sport and recreation, politics and church. Occasionally there were local citizens (usually retired), parents and CYSS participants among the members. Very few committees had business representatives. Only five had members who either worked with migrants or belonged to ethnic organisations. This low level of representation in areas of high migrant settlement appears to reflect the attitudes and interests of both migrant groups and people involved with CYSS projects.

Of the three projects whose committees had representatives of ethnic organisations among their members, one had co-opted a representative of an ethnic organisation as a member without voting powers. These, and two other committees, also included professionals working with migrant clients (migrant social worker and welfare officer, ethnic children's services workers).

Community network

LMC members' community contacts, and inter-agency contacts maintained by Project Officers, were believed by all projects to be an important link with the local community. Some LMCs considered themselves representatives of the community, as they were elected to the committees at public meetings. They believed that their involvement was in itself an indication of community support for the project.

Committee members usually played a linking role with the community through their work. However, it was mostly Project Officers who established and maintained contacts with agencies and organisations which were not represented on the committee.

Employers

Contacts with employers were established by projects which provided work experience for participants. A number of other projects were occasionally contacted by employers to obtain casual workers. Such relationships were often a result of LMC members' contacts with Rotary, Apex or Lions Club members.

Educational institutions

Committee members' contacts with TAFE or local high schools were helpful to the projects in providing access to information, facilities, venues and tutors.

Many Project Officers saw a role for CYSS in providing careers advice in secondary schools. Thirteen projects considered a school program as an integral activity of a CYSS project. School programs varied in scope and regularity, but in general consisted of talks to students to sensitise them to problems that might follow school-leaving, such as unemployment and its effects on the individual. CYSS services and programs were promoted during these talks and students were invited to visit their local centre.

Local government

Six projects established close working relationships with their local council. Local government assistance varied from providing free accommodation and various facilities to outposting staff. In three cases the Council handled administration and finances of the projects.

There were other projects that complained about the lack of co-operation and insensitivity to youth issues of their local Council. This was seen as an inhibiting factor in the projects' operation and development.

Non-government organisations

Some LMCs belonged to the wider community groups, thus becoming directly involved in provision of community services in the area. Some Project Officers were themselves members of committees of other community groups concerned with emergency accommodation, legal services, health care, welfare, community education and youth affairs. They represented their project on such committees and had direct access and input to the network of local services.

Parents

Only one project (CYSS 7) had 'lots of contact with parents'. The centre organised open days for parents and young people to familiarise them with the place. Parents were willing to visit the centre and their opinion on activities was taken into consideration by the Project Officers and LMC.

Other projects did not encourage parents' participation and in a few cases were against it. Reasons for lack of contact were numerous: participants living on their own, older participants, independent participants, lack of concern on parents' part, or lack of parental influence on their children.

Parents contacted the project to find out about activities or to get advice when their children were in trouble. Sometimes participants, especially young migrant women, were accompanied by their parents during an initial interview, and in some cases they were dropped off and picked up by their parents. Generally, it was recognised that, when a project attracted migrant women, a lot of contact with parents would be necessary.

Working contacts with ethnic organisations

Ten Local Management Committees had made no attempt to contact ethnic organisations. Quite often members either did not know if there were any ethnic organisations in the area or did not see the need for their involvement. Such organisations were said either to be not prominent (and therefore not contacted) or to keep to themselves and look after their own (CYSS 13). One project (CYSS 6) was contacted by an ethnic organisation in relation to a Youth Festival which was being organised in the area, otherwise the project did not really get involved.

Two Local Management Committees tried to establish contacts with ethnic organisations and a Migrant Resource Centre but found the response to be poor. One (CYSS 16) admitted that they neglected this area because of lack of understanding of specific ethnic needs at that time, but that they were going to try again, 'however midway on a priority list, eg. young women highest priority in recent months'. Another LMC (CYSS 15) complained about a lack of co-operation from ethnic groups. It was argued that migrants were not interested in CYSS as the youth were ashamed to be unemployed and tended to use their own family networks for support. The Committee believed that they would have to be very desperate to make use of welfare services, and use them only as a last resort.

In one case (CYSS 14) the LMC left contacts with ethnic organisations to Project Officers on the grounds that ethnic organisations did not show much

interest. However, the Project Officer reported that she had many contacts with ethnic organisations. Indeed, the project received a grant from the Ethnic Affairs Commission and had a Co.As.It. worker seconded to co-ordinate one of the programs.

Project Officers from eleven centres reported that they had never attempted to establish contacts with ethnic organisations. A number of those who had, found the support provided by ethnic organisations disappointing. Suggestions for more information and service exchange between CYSS and ethnic organisations were put in two cases. The impression was that ethnic organisations want things from CYSS but they do not give much support to CYSS (CYSS 3 and CYSS 8).

An interesting but rare example of successful outreach work aimed at migrant women was provided by CYSS 8 and its industrial sewing course. A migrant worker was employed to research the needs of migrant women, whom the project was not attracting, and to set up appropriate programs. In researching their needs, the Migrant Worker contacted all welfare agencies in the area, including ethnic organisations, trying to get in touch with service providers who had contact with women. Among others, she contacted Adult Migrant English teachers and through them made appointments with students to inquire about their needs and work skills they wanted to develop. A result was the industrial sewing classes which proved very successful in attracting migrant women participants. The worker felt that her liaison with ethnic organisations made her more trustworthy to women.

There was, however, no direct correlation between contacts with ethnic organisations and levels of migrant participation. Although all projects (4) which established such contacts, had migrants participating, there were also other projects which attracted migrants without contacting ethnic organisations.

The very presence of migrants in a centre did not automatically imply that they received services that would meet their specific needs. It would seem obvious that ethnic organisations could provide valuable assistance to projects providing migrant services, and work in co-operation with them. However, as all data indicate, CYSS has not gained much credibility among ethnic communities. It seems that a difficult situation has developed where CYSS projects complain of the limited concern about unemployed youth in migrant communities, while ethnic communities are critical of what CYSS offers.

On the other hand, the Institute's consultations with ethnic communities found they displayed considerable interest in playing an expanded role in assisting young unemployed from their communities. About half of the ethnic organisations consulted, particularly those of larger or more recently arrived groups, expressed their willingness to become involved if they could obtain the necessary resources. Under the current guidelines, however, only publicly elected community-based committees are eligible for CYSS grants. This arrangement disadvantages migrant and ethnic groups who may lack the language skills, knowledge and confidence to participate in such endeavours. Further, this eligibility restriction is unique to CYSS among the community-based programs - existing community agencies can apply for grants under the Volunteer Youth Program and Community Youth Special Projects, as well as under the Community Employment Program. No strong case has been advanced for this eligibility restriction applying to CYSS.

Targeting

Another factor which hampers significantly the effectiveness of CYSS in general, and also its particular ability to meet the needs of migrant youth, is

an unrealistic expectation that CYSS will undertake a variety of activities to cater for a variety of local youth. It is assumed that CYSS will meet all their needs, including skills training, personal development, recreation and general support. This manifold role is forced upon CYSS centres because of inadequacy of other services for youth such as youth clubs, advice and counselling services and recreation facilities. The paradox of this situation was well summarised by the Byrne Report:

> ... by trying to cover the whole range of need in one centre with two staff and a floor area less than that of houses in which many of us live, most centres are not achieving any of the government's alleged objectives other than peripherally (Byrne p.200).

Projects vary in their activities and also in their clientele. Most of those interviewed for this study, including participants, Project Officers, Local Management Committee members and DEIR Field Officers, recognised that different CYSS projects and activities within projects appealed to different kinds of people. Any change in the types of activity offered by a centre resulted in a change of clientele.

CYSS participants

Although the backgrounds of participants varied, most Project Officers could identify a typical profile of a person attending their project. Different problems received more emphasis in different projects, but quite a number of them were occurring in all places. Loneliness and lack of motivation were perceived as big problems in most centres. People coming to CYSS lacked self-confidence and had very low self-esteem. They could not cope with unemployment and CYSS was a place to kill time and boredom. Those who lived away from home had financial difficulties. There were some who wanted to get away from home because of conflicts with parents or brothers. CYSS was a comfortable place to be, one where the atmosphere was friendly and all people were equal.

Some Project Officers emphasised that their participants came from working-class and disadvantaged backgrounds, their needs were at a survival level. These projects had to concentrate on protecting their participants from serious crisis rather than developing their potential to meet the 'manpower objectives of the scheme'. Project Officers claimed it was very difficult to offer skill-development courses or work experience programs to a young person who cannot cope emotionally with his/her problems, who has a drug or alcohol problem, who is homeless, left with no money and may face criminal charges. Referring these people to appropriate agencies was not always a solution to their problems. Quite often they were in need of immediate help and referring them did not ensure they would contact the agency to which they had been referred. Although not equipped with adequate skills, some Project Officers tried to assist those who turned to them for help, not willing to take a risk that a young person might be left alone with his/her problems. The seriousness of decisions which Project Officers have to take was indicated in one centre where, just a few days before our visit, a 19-year-old who had been coming to the centre for about four weeks, had committed suicide.

Probation officers, social workers, Department of Community Welfare Services, Mental Retardation Division and CES were all using CYSS as a place to which they could refer their clients. CYSS was accepting them all and trying to provide as effective help as they could.

In each centre there were participants who were coming to CYSS because they wanted to acquire some skills or use their centre to get a job. According to the Project Officers, such participants usually did not stay long as they were motivated enough to move on. Those who stayed in CYSS were usually long-term unemployed and had a low educational background.

For the majority CYSS was a transitory place. No evidence could be provided to show that for the majority the transition was to employment or further education. Although this certainly was the case for some young people, others stopped attending either because CYSS satisfied their immediate needs or did not meet them at all.

Core groups of 5 to 15 participants, coming to the centre regularly for as long as four or five years, were described by many projects. The core groups were usually male dominated and only occasionally accepted females, provided they could fit in easily.

The majority of projects were willing to accept participants from outside the eligible age group. It was believed that presence of people of different ages was of benefit to everyone. In a few cases older participants guaranteed achieving the 'numbers' needed for further funding, as they participated in structured courses run by sessional instructors. In other cases, Project Officers were concerned that there was a growing number of unemployed people in their 30s or 40s for whom no services were provided. Many Project Officers felt an obligation to assist unemployed from older groups because of the lack of alternative services for them.

In general, participants were satisfied with what was offered at the projects they attended. Many young people emphasised the value of CYSS in providing companionship and general help in coping with unemployment: others saw its main value in helping prepare them for employment.

Although generally satisfied, nearly a quarter of all participants interviewed thought that their project needed improvement, either in terms of upgraded premises and equipment, increased numbers of staff or a wider range of activities.

One young man, when asked what he thought about CYSS, said: 'Lucky we've got this place, really. Where would we be without it? On the streets probably'. It was not uncommon for participants to say that CYSS was a better place than home or that it was 'better than nothing'. One person had this to say about the scheme: 'CYSS is good - because it offers hope.'

Objectives of CYSS projects

The wide variations in what was offered to participants in different centres were in large part determined by projects' perceptions of the role of the Scheme, and how these perceptions were related to the needs that were identified in the local community. The assessment of needs, and the determination of patterns of activities within projects, tended to reflect either a response to those young unemployed who made contacts with centres, or the conscious targeting of service provision to particular groups among the unemployed.

Although concerned that they were not attracting all unemployed people in the area, some Project Officers recognised that such an aim would be impossible to achieve anyway. One may argue whether it is a conscious decision about target groups that determines programs, or whether it is the programs themselves that

determine who comes to the centre. In most projects visited, needs assessment, if it took place at all, was directed towards those making contact with the project rather than at all young unemployed in the area. Even in those few cases where more general needs assessment was undertaken in the wider community, decisions had to be taken on how to balance the varying needs of local unemployed youth, and the selection criteria applied.

This posed problems to some Project Officers and LMCs who were concerned that they had to make decisions on who of those in need had priority. It should be noted that the selection process was not so formalised that any formal decision whether to admit or not admit potential participants to the centre was made. In most cases this was done indirectly, by setting up a project which was attractive to some and did not appeal to others. Some Project Officers, however, discouraged difficult participants from attending if it was felt that their behaviour was disruptive, or if all attempts to involve them in some activity failed.

These are some of the comments expressed in relation to selecting target groups:

- 'CYSS appeals to certain kinds of people, others won't come. If you change it, eg. street kids won't come. What do you choose?' (CYSS 8)

- 'CYSS can't really cater for those with strong anti-social attitudes. They are part of a sub-culture which we don't understand - is it good to impose our own agenda upon them?' (CYSS 1)

- 'Because kids have to take part in courses, they must have some motivation to learn something, others simply drop out or get thrown out.' (CYSS 4)

- 'Our centre is to assist youth who are motivated to seek work and require assistance. It does not cater for the unmotivated long-term unemployed who are happy on the dole and just want a place to hang around. One centre cannot be all things, and being a drop-in place would interfere with the job skills approach.' (CYSS 9)

- 'This project aims to offer support to the people at the greatest risk, ie. those who are sacked the easiest, become homeless easily, need legal help most. It reaches the angry young unemployed.' (CYSS 12)

- 'CYSS is catering only for certain kinds of people, it doesn't have a broad range of participants. Working-class kids come because they need moral support. Middle-class kids don't come: they generally have better family support, are too proud to come to CYSS and would feel embarrassed.' (CYSS 16)

- 'If someone causes disruption and becomes a hassle for everyone, then he is asked not to come back again. Tough kids need help too but CYSS workers are not qualified to help them.' (CYSS 7)

All projects visited for the study undertook a combination of activities, but the resources devoted to each varied so greatly as to give quite distinct profiles to individual centres.

All provided advice, information and referral services. Beyond this, some projects saw their role as primarily work-oriented, providing a place of transition to employment. They tended to be strongly employment-oriented and to conduct fairly structured courses or programs in developing work skills and employment-seeking skills such as job search and interview techniques. Many of

the projects which saw themselves as work-oriented, faced a dilemma as to whether a transition process to employment could actually take place since 'there are not jobs for everybody'. Some believed that developing work skills increases chances of getting employment, some considered the building up of self-confidence and self-esteem was a necessary process towards getting jobs, others tried to keep their participants motivated and ready to accept employment when it became available. In practice, work-oriented projects usually represented a combination of these approaches, but in that combination the aim of assisting clients into the workforce was predominant.

Other projects emphasised the role of CYSS in generally supporting young unemployed, either on the basis that work orientation was futile in the present economic climate or because there was no other agency providing supportive services. Such assistance might offer a welcoming environment with recreational facilities; or provide classes in arts and craft; or offer programs developing social and personal skills, such as cooking and budgeting. A number of projects saw their role in broader terms, as being community development and education agencies aiming to generate more employment opportunities and increase public awareness of unemployment and the problems faced by those out of work.

Planning the activities

In all projects visited many staff and LMC members expressed their concern that it was very difficult to assess needs and find appropriate ways to meet them. Ideas originated from work experience, observation of the area, and participation in the meetings of other community groups concerned with youth and unemployment where an opportunity existed to examine available community services, and to exchange ideas and experiences. On the other hand, it was noted in a few cases that a CYSS project functioned as the needs identifier, and as such contributed to the community knowledge about the needs of the young unemployed in the area.

Most projects were making decisions about appropriate activities on a 'trial and error' basis. While it was difficult to identify the needs of those who were coming to the centre, even more difficult were attempts to attract new groups of participants. Quite often we heard Project Officers saying 'you never know what is going to work, you have to experiment'. Some were discouraged from experimenting by what they called a vicious circle of trying to acquire equipment for courses in which interest was expressed and then losing those interested participants by the time the equipment was finally obtained. Others said that types of courses offered were determined by capabilities of Project Officers and existing resources.

On the other hand, positive aspects of repeating courses which had attracted many participants in the past were emphasised by a number of Project Officers. This was said to lead to 'specialisation' of projects which allowed them to develop expertise and establish a reputation for running specific courses and activities.

The need for projects to attain some degree of specialisation through defining closely their objectives and developing courses and activities accordingly, advocated by the Byrne Report, is supported by this study. This may be the only way to provide appropriate assistance to groups with particular needs, for example by employing staff with specific language or professional skills, or by designing certain projects or activities for young women only. Some such initiatives are already taking place, but single-purpose or single-target group projects are not eligible for funding. Although projects may be targeted at

specific groups of young unemployed, they may not be established exclusively for a particular segment of the eligible group. Applications for ethno-specific or females-only CYSS projects have been rejected on that basis.

Project staff

The capacity of projects to provide appropriate and effective services to participants is to a large extent determined by their Project Officers. Current guidelines do not provide any guidance on the desirable qualities and qualifications of Project Officers, nor do they specify appropriate selection procedures. The criteria for selection are left to the discretion of individual Local Management Committees.

The guidelines of 1978 and 1979 were quite specific in relation to employment of staff. The 1978 guidelines recognised that:

> The Project Officer is clearly a key person in determining the success or otherwise of a project. A good Project Officer requires the support of an effective Local CYSS Committee to run a successful project. An unsuitable Project Officer, however, can destroy a project despite the best efforts of the Local CYSS Committee (DEIR 1978, p. 17).

It was further stated that 'where practicable, Project Officers should be appointed from among the unemployed'. Local Committees were advised that young people with tertiary qualifications would not necessarily make the best Project Officers and that many older people had great experience of life which would often outweigh the benefits of tertiary training. What was considered important was that Project Officers were seen by all concerned as members of the local community. Therefore local residents (tradesmen, married women, people who have worked in industry) in the 20 to 60 year age group should always be considered for positions as Project Officers.

As to the personal qualities needed in Project Officers, it was emphasised that they must be able to relate to and understand the problems of unemployed youth and be able to communicate effectively with members of the wider community to enlist their support.

The 1979 guidelines reinforced the previous qualities desirable in Project Officers. However, any advice on qualities of suitability for Project Officers was omitted from the 1982 guidelines.

Besides Project Officers, LMCs may also contract sessional instructors, tutors and visiting speakers for particular courses and activities. They may also 'apply for grants from other Federal, State and local government sources or from other authorities for activities consistent with the CYSS objectives or for other related activities so long as they do not interfere with the program of CYSS activities' (DEIR 1983). Such grants are often designed for employment of additional workers.

Background and qualifications of Project Officers

Views on the desirable qualities of CYSS workers vary among projects, so do the backgrounds of project staff. Of those interviewed for this study, many did not appear to be well equipped for working with unemployed youth. More than one-third (17 persons) had neither qualifications nor previous experience in teaching, working with youth, or welfare work.

The background and qualifications of the 49 Project Officers of whom details were obtained varied widely. Almost one third (16 persons) did not have any post-secondary qualifications, but two-thirds (32 persons) had previous experience either in youth (including teaching) or welfare work; 13 persons (or 27%) had experienced unemployment.

Of those who had some formal qualifications (33 persons), over 42% (14 persons) were trained in social work, welfare studies (one course included an ethnic relations elective) or social studies, and a further two persons were qualified in health and nutrition. Six persons had teaching qualifications (two in ESL), six were qualified tradesmen, three had degrees in fine arts or humanities and two in commerce and law. Table 7.7 presents the number of Project Officers qualified in given areas by sex and ethnic background.

There were more women than men employed in the projects visited. Further, of those qualified in social or welfare work, the overwhelming majority (86%) were females.

Many of the Project Officers interviewed did not appear to be adequately prepared to work with unemployed migrant youth: two-thirds of the Project Officers, all from the centres located in areas with significant proportions of young migrants, had no background relevant to an understanding of specific migrant issues and needs. Only fifteen of the 49 Project Officers had some attribute in their personal or professional experience, training or skills, which might have specifically assisted them in working with migrant youth - twelve were migrants themselves or had migrant parents, and three had received some training in migrant issues as part of their general qualifications and/or had some kind of previous experience in working with migrants.

Of the 12 Project Officers of migrant background, eight were women. The four male officers of migrant background had no formal qualifications, whereas almost all of migrant women (7 out of 8) were qualified in social/youth work (6) or teaching (1).

Three projects had designated one of their Project Officers to work with migrants and in one other case, all three Project Officers employed were required to have the ability to relate to migrant youth. Of the Project Officers employed to work with migrants, there were five women and one man. All the female Project Officers had a migrant background, four of them could speak a community language (Italian or Greek), and three were actively involved in their ethnic communities. They had qualifications in social work (2), psychology (2) and ESL teaching (1). The male Project Officer was qualified in motor mechanics.

Other workers

Apart from the employment of Project Officers, CYSS projects can draw on other people to provide services for participants: the CYSS grant includes provision for the employment of sessional instructors for specific purposes, projects can obtain funding from other sources to employ additional staff and they can recruit volunteers to assist in particular courses and activities. Among projects visited by the Institute all these sources had been tapped to provide services specifically for migrant youth.

Several projects employed sessional instructors to work with migrant youth in a variety of ways, such as conducting English classes, providing skills training or advice, and counselling in the participants' native language.

Table 7.7: Qualifications of Project Officers by sex and by Australian/migrant background*

Qualifications	Female			Male			Persons		
	Aust.	Mig.	Total	Aust.	Mig.	Total	Aust.	Mig.	Total
Social work/ welfare studies	6	6	12	2	-	2	8	6	14
Teaching	4	1	5	1	-	1	5	1	6
Arts/humanities	-	-	-	3	-	3	3	-	3
Commerce/law	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Health/nutrition	2	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	2
Trade	-	-	-	6	-	6	6	-	6
No formal quals.	7	1	8	4	4	8	11	5	16
Total	21	8	29	16	4	20	37	12	49

Source: CYSS Projects Study
* 'Migrant background' includes persons born overseas as well as Australian-born of migrant parents.

Two projects secured funding from outside sources (one government, one private) for the employment of designated 'Migrant Workers'. One of these provided for the worker to research the needs of migrant women and the establishment of a pilot project to cater for those needs. Subsequently, the project successfully applied for a grant under the Community Employment Program to employ eight full-time staff on an expanded version of the pilot program. The second project received a grant for 9 months but lost its first employee after only 3 months. The replacement had to begin virtually from scratch and lamented that she would have to stop just when she was getting established. Both of the Migrant Workers in the study were women of Italian background, and had had considerable experience working with ethnic communities. Two other projects were seeking funds additional to their grants to employ Migrant Workers.

Voluntary work was not encouraged by most CYSS projects and attempts were made to pay wages, even if only small, to all those who assisted in the projects' operation. There were, nonetheless, exceptions. The most striking was the project which employed 18 volunteers (CYSS 8). Only one project, at the time of the study, made use of volunteers to work with migrant youth - in this case a Vietnamese welfare student who attended the project once a week. The Project Officers felt that this was not adequate, and that there was a need for a paid worker with the appropriate language skills and understanding of Indo-Chinese refugees.

Altogether there were ten projects where the need for a migrant worker was perceived and some steps were taken to employ such a person. Although most Project Officers were of the opinion that it was not migrant background, but an understanding of and sensitivity to migrants' needs, that make a good migrant worker, all but one of those working with migrants had an ethnic background. The one Project Officer of an Anglo-Saxon origin felt that it would be helpful if he had a migrant background.

It should be noted, however, that the ethnic backgrounds of most of the Migrant Workers were different from the backgrounds of participants. Even working with new arrivals whose English was very limited was not seen to necessitate

speaking the participants' language. As it was put by a CYSS & Migrant Worker, herself of Italian background, who worked with Vietnamese, Turkish, Timorese and Laotian migrant women : 'you do not need to speak their language to be able to help them, even if their English is very limited'.

On the other hand, it was reported by Project Officers working with sessional migrant workers that new arrivals stopped coming if 'their' worker left the centre, and that having a staff who could speak the language of the participants increased and maintained the attendance of migrants who had problems with English.

In-service training

In the absence of clear objectives of the Scheme, with competing and often urgent needs to meet, project staff have had to define and master their roles as they went along, with relatively little external professional support and advice. Of the 49 officers, only 15 had attended some in-service training, and only two thought that the sessions were informative - the remainder being critical of what was offered, and doubting of its usefulness for their work.

What was appreciated was an opportunity to meet workers from other projects and exchange ideas and experiences. Such contacts were said to reduce the isolation of individual projects and increase the awareness that problems which the workers faced were not unique to their centre.

Four persons were discouraged from attending in-service because of the quality of seminars offered. They considered it a waste of time. There were four others who thought that in-service was basically for newcomers and that there was no need to attend training after several years of experience at CYSS. On the other hand, there were two persons who complained that no in-service was offered to them although they saw a great need for such training.

Altogether, there were twenty Project Officers who expressed a need for in-service training. It was suggested that, instead of informal camps, informative workshops should be organised. A wide range of subjects for in-service sessions was proposed and it was emphasised that all workers should have a choice of in-service topics rather than be required to attend seminars which might not be relevant to their particular projects.

None of the courses attended by the Project Officers focused on migrant or ethnic youth issues. DEIR has not organised any courses for CYSS staff specifically in this area. The recent establishment of State Development and Training Committees to devise strategies for training of staff and Local Management Committee members gives some ground for optimism that CYSS staff will be offered much-needed professional support. The optimism seems, however, to be unjustified in relation to migrant needs when one considers that no formal guidance has been issued to Committees that their training strategies should take account of the needs of particular groups such as migrant youth.

Opinion among Project Officers differed about the likely value of such training. Eleven thought that in-service training on multicultural issues would be very useful, and that sensitivity to and awareness of migrants' needs was more important than ethnic background itself. Six believed that ethnic background was essential to work with migrants and that 'sensitivity training' could not turn an Anglo-Saxon into a successful worker with migrant youth.

Eighteen Project Officers believed that interchange of professional information and ideas was very important. Some of them tried to maintain contacts with

other projects, visiting them whenever time permitted to 'keep in touch and know other people's ideas'. There were, however, six other workers who valued highly the autonomy of their projects and did not see any need for increased professional support.

Much of the learning and development had taken place by the exchange of ideas and experience among Project Officers themselves. Projects which had developed initiatives that proved successful in working with specific target groups, such as migrants or women, were often requested by other centres to share their experiences and expertise. Such informal support networks can only be developed on a limited scale, yet besides infrequent in-service training, they have been the only resources on which Project Officers could draw. In October 1983, DEIR announced (1983b) that a Project Operation Manual would be published: nearly two years later it still had not been issued. It could be a valuable resource for Project Officers, providing inter alia information on needs of migrant youth and successful models of operation to respond effectively.

One writer has claimed that 'a number of projects have been disasters as a consequence of poor management at the Local Committee level, poor selection of Project Officers, the lack of adequate support networks for Project Officers and/or the lack [...] of adequate pre-training and in-service training programmes. Such disasters will continue to occur despite the development of more adequate training, and such disasters are a necessary component of any community-based and controlled programme.' (Freeland, p.33) However, it can be argued that setting appropriate requirements for qualifications of Project Officers, and developing support networks and in-service training programs will reduce the incidence of disasters.

Professional and informative in-service training sessions can become important channels for providing guidance to project staff working with migrant youth, as well as for developing working contacts between projects operating in areas of high migrant settlement. Such sessions could be provided within the general training program for CYSS staff and project management, to sensitise them to the needs of young migrants and suggest how to meet them.

Grant arrangements

DEIR provides all projects with 'participant record cards' to be used for all participants attending the centre and serve as a basis for amalgamated statistics required by the Department in bi-monthly reports.

Four projects admitted that they did not keep daily records of attendance or other statistics on their participants. This was seen as unnecessary, creating an atmosphere more appropriate in school or an institution. They provided 'estimated' statistics to DEIR to ensure continuation of their funding.

All other projects had a daily attendance sheet to be signed by participants. It was indicated by Project Officers in a few centres that a number of participants forgot to sign their names and therefore the actual attendance was higher than indicated by attendance sheets. Although reluctant to do so, Project Officers felt they had to engage in a 'numbers game' initiated by the Department and usually 'corrected' this discrepancy in their reports.

Participant record cards were usually filled in on first coming to the centre and taken out of the file system when the participant had not been in the project for some time (about two or three months). These participants, until their cards had been deleted from the system, were included in the statistics.

The statistics included all those participating in CYSS, whether or not they were the eligible participants. Only two projects were reluctant to accept participants outside the eligible group of 15 to 25-year-olds. All the others did not see any need for excluding older or younger participants. The same applied to the unemployment status: people working part-time, school students, or even workers on leave were among CYSS participants.

The Department also requires information on the reasons for ceasing attendance, including commencing employment, SYETP or apprenticeship. Most Project Officers, however, did not know why the participants left their centre. In all projects where structured courses were running for a week or two, Project Officers rarely heard from the participants again. Only a few projects had a practice of following up the participants who ceased coming to the centre, and even in these cases the action was directed at 'regular' rather than 'sessional' participants. Obviously not everyone could be reached.

This information was nevertheless provided to the Department, being one of the indicators of a project's success and a factor affecting future funding.

All projects provided monthly reports to their LMCs. In some cases these, together with the minutes of the LMC meeting, were sent to the Department. The practice adopted by most projects was that prescribed by the guidelines, ie. providing the Department with bi-monthly reports on project operation and finances.

Funding principle

The current basis of funding, linking grant levels to numbers of participants, has the consequence of encouraging some projects to run activities designed primarily to attract numbers, even from outside the eligible group. A related consequence of the need to be concerned with numbers is that projects are reluctant to undertake work which cannot be 'expressed' in numbers, eg. intensive work with small groups, or outreach work with youth who do not attend the centres. It has particular bearing on the situation of migrant youth, especially young women.

It was observed in a number of centres that courses were necessary for statistical purposes, while the real CYSS work was measured in quality, rather than numbers. Where two projects were located not far from each other, Project Officers reported a tendency to compete for the numbers and avoided mutual referrals. It is quite clear that none of these practices contributed to the Scheme's success and the achievement of its objectives.

It was suggested in a few cases that the level of local unemployment and the relative disadvantage of a potential client group should be a measure of need and an indicator for an appropriate grant level, rather than the pattern of participation. One Project Officer described the current funding procedures as a vicious circle which the most disadvantaged areas could not escape: 'working class areas need more money but are getting less because they are doing less because of the lack of funds'.

Thirteen projects in our sample expressed their concern about inadequate funding. Seven projects felt they needed more staff to work in specialised areas, especially in migrant and outreach work and community relations. Ten projects were dissatisfied with their accommodation and equipment which were dictated by the level of grant. One project, which was in the process of moving to new premises, perceived a need for an additional grant to cover the costs of moving to and establishing a new centre.

Accommodation and equipment

The majority of projects were located in or near the local shopping centre, not far from a CES office. There were, however, four projects situated near major roads, outside the walking distance from the main shopping area. One of them moved out from the shopping centre to occupy a house on the outskirts because it was let free by the Shire.

All projects visited were occupying either houses or shopfronts. One project had recently moved out from an old scout hall. The hall accommodation was said to be insufficient in terms of space, as well as creating heating problems. The hall had no ceiling but an iron roof. It was impossible to heat in winter and very hot in summer.

Insufficient space was a common reason for changing premises. Sometimes a change of location was sought to change the clientele of the project. Many centres reported breaking-in, vandalism and theft and three projects had been either burnt down or demolished.

Very few centres appeared to be pleasant or clean places. In most cases the premises were shabby and the furniture worn-out. This was not necessarily perceived as a problem. Many Project Officers did not comment on the appearance of their centre. When dissatisfaction was expressed, it resulted from inadequate space and lack of equipment for running different activities. In two cases the opinion was voiced that such an environment was comfortable for the participants and that 'too fancy' premises might discourage those who came.

Field Officers

The Department of Employment and Industrial Relations performs a dual role in relation to all CYSS projects: it monitors and evaluates projects' operation as well as providing them with assistance and support. Most of these functions are carried out by departmental Field Officers. Regional CYSS Executive Officers are also available for assistance and information.

Relationships between Project Officers and their Field Officers varied among projects. Ten projects were satisfied with the Field Officers' role and found them helpful. They appreciated Field Officers' assistance in clarifying details of departmental policies and conditions of grant.

A common criticism expressed by many Project Officers was that Field Officers changed frequently and this made it difficult to establish good working relationships. In 8 out of 17 projects it was reported that new Field Officers had been allocated to their projects within the past few weeks.

Seven projects were critical of the role of the Department, especially of the 'assessing' role of Field Officers. It was suggested that they should spend more time in the centres to appreciate the kind of work which is being done at CYSS. Frequency of Field Officers' visits ranged from once a month to once a year, with the most usual being once every two months.

Six projects expressed a need for greater professional support from Field Officers. They complained about their inadequate expertise in CYSS or other youth work which resulted in lack of understanding and of the initiative which could provide helpful ideas or suggestions. It was suggested in a number of centres that Field Officers should be recruited from among Project Officers. One Project Officer thought it would be advisable to have Field Officers

allocated according to their expertise and projects' activities rather than on a geographical basis. She saw a need for specialised Field Officers who could provide professional support to projects working with women, Aborigines, migrants or other specifically defined target groups.

Conclusion

In the nine years of its operation, the Community Youth Support Scheme has had four different sets of guidelines, has been subject to a series of official evaluations, survived a Government decision to terminate it and an attempt to transform it into a national youth service. It has experienced a considerable growth which has always been accompanied by debate, if not controversy, on its role and functions. It has been frequently criticised for its inability to attract more disadvantaged groups, such as women, Aborigines and migrants.

In 1984/85 there were 319 CYSS projects in the country, varying widely in their operations. It was found by this study that projects determine their program of activities and services depending on how they perceive the role of CYSS and how they relate those perceptions to the needs they identify in the local community. Some are strongly work-oriented, others emphasise the role of CYSS in supporting young unemployed, yet others see a role in promoting community education and development. All projects provide advice, information and referral services.

Projects also vary in whom they attract, with most centres serving only a limited number of young unemployed in their locality. There is no national data on migrant participation in CYSS but the indicators available suggest that it is generally low, particularly for those born in non-English-speaking countries.

Migrant youth participation was found to vary among projects. A number of factors were identified to account for these variations, of which social dynamics of centres, relevance of activities offered, and the public image of CYSS appeared to be of considerable significance.

CYSS projects often evolve as centres where social and recreational activities are key attractions for young people to participate. If migrant youth are left out, it is either because of outright hostility from the dominant group or simply because they do not feel 'at home' at a particular centre.

Relatively few projects conduct 'market research' among potential participants but rather try to respond to those who make contact with the centre. Only a few projects conduct activities specifically aimed at attracting migrant youth.

Migrant participation appears, however, to be affected not only by the availability of migrant specific programs and activities, but also by the overall balance of other types of programs run by projects. Both recently arrived and longer resident migrants were more interested in structured activities imparting practical skills than in CYSS supportive services. Nevertheless, their need for companionship was even stronger than among the Australian-born and migrants from English-speaking countries.

The study found that few Local Management Committees include migrant or ethnic members, and that attempts by projects to gain involvement from those communities have been limited. On the other hand, the evidence suggests that CYSS has not gained credibility among ethnic communities. Many ethnic groups have low regard for CYSS because of the poor state of many premises, not quite

obvious benefits of participation, lack of information about the Scheme, and their minimal involvement in community committees that manage CYSS.

It may well be that a vicious circle has developed. Ethnic groups' slight involvement in the scheme means that they have little opportunity to learn about it and to influence its shape so that it corresponds to their attitudes and values; in turn their lack of enthusiasm about the Scheme influences the attitudes of Project Officers who feel that there is little point in pursuing ethnic involvement because migrant and ethnic groups show litte enthusiasm.

Another factor significantly hampering effectiveness and the ability to meet the needs of migrant youth, is an unrealistic expectation that CYSS can undertake a variety of activities to cater for a variety of groups from among the local youth and meet all their needs, including skills training, personal development, recreation and general support. This confusion is further compounded by the current funding principle which links grant levels to numbers of participants. Projects are reluctant to undertake work which cannot be 'expressed' in numbers, eg. intensive work with small groups or outreach work with youth who do not attend the centres. It has particular bearing on the situation of migrant youth, especially young women.

To date the development of programs for 'special' groups, including migrants, has been dependent on CYSS projects assigning core staff to work with particular youth, or taking on additional staff either as sessional instructors, volunteers or staff paid from other sources of funds. None of these temporary arrangements has provided a secure or comprehensive basis within the Scheme for such work. The study found that, while a number of projects are actively seeking to respond specifically to migrant youth needs, such initiatives frequently are not integral to project funding or staffing structures. This situation is likely to be somewhat remedied with the 1984 introduction of special initiatives funding, in addition to standard grants, designed to assist women and other disadvantaged groups, including migrants. Single-purpose or single-sex projects are, however, still not eligible for funding.

Many of the project staff interviewed for the study did not appear to be adequately prepared to work with unemployed migrant youth. Two-thirds of the Project Officers from the centres located in areas with significant proportions of young migrants had no background relevant to an understanding of specific migrant issues and needs. This gap was not compensated for by DEIR in-service training which has included no courses for CYSS staff specifically in this area.

In the absence of clear objectives of the Scheme, with competing and often urgent needs to meet, project staff have had to define and master their roles as they went along, with relatively little external professional support or advice. Insufficient professional support was particularly evident in relation to meeting the needs of young migrants.

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